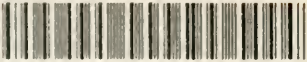


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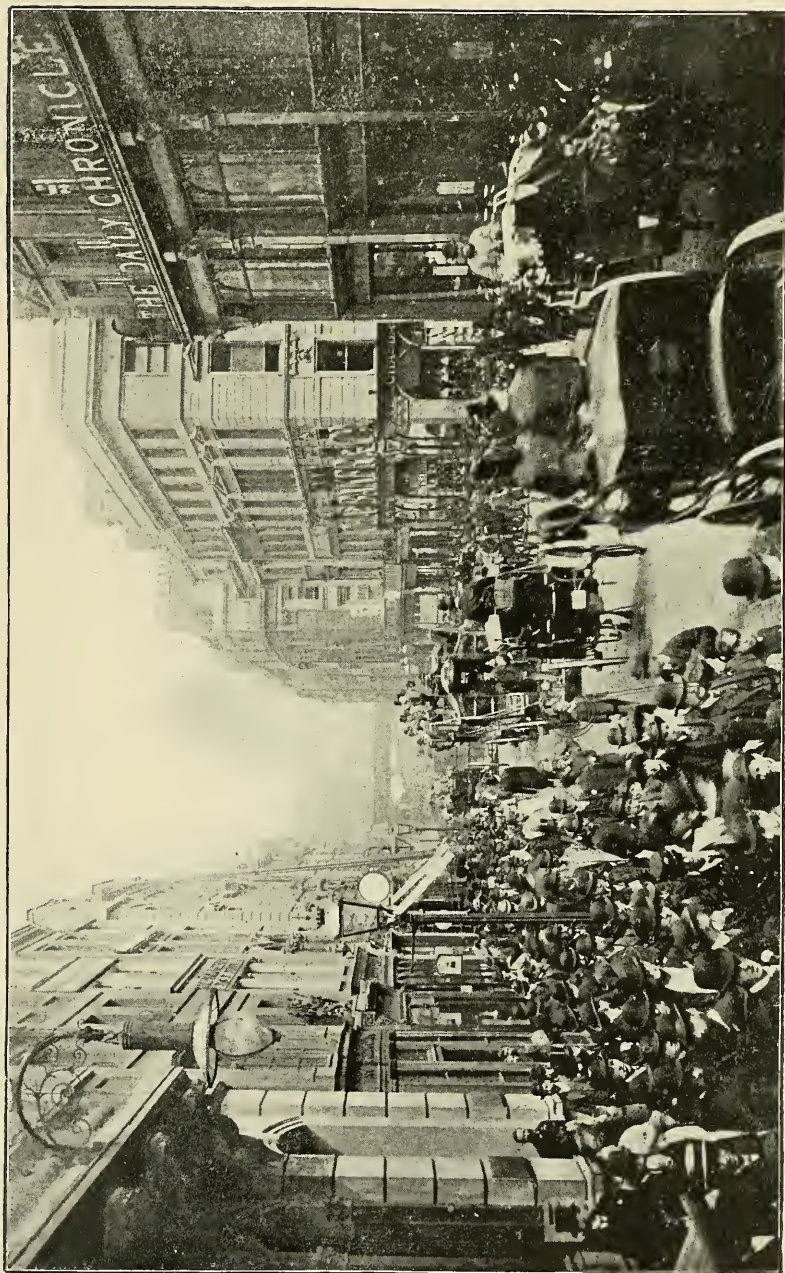
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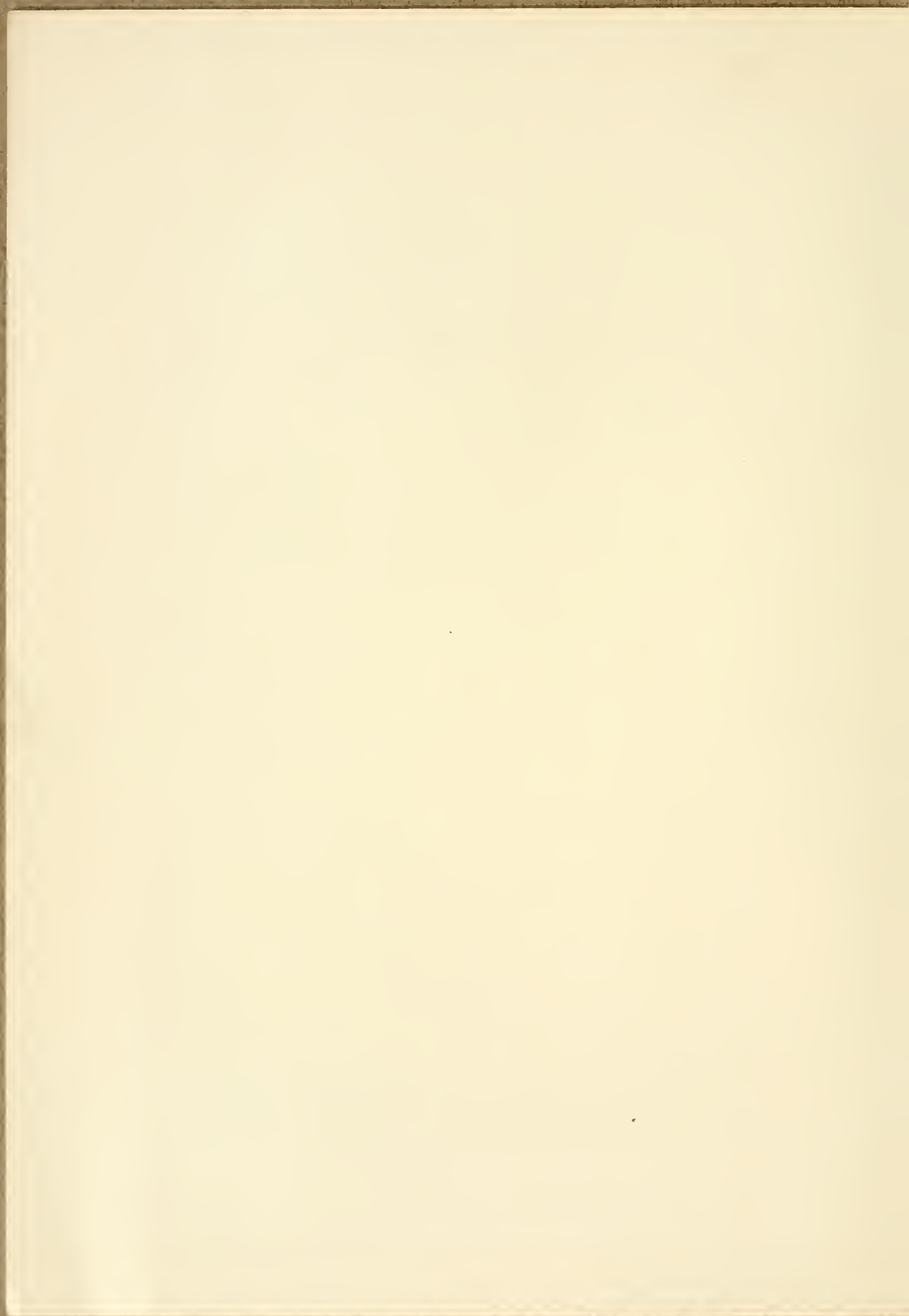
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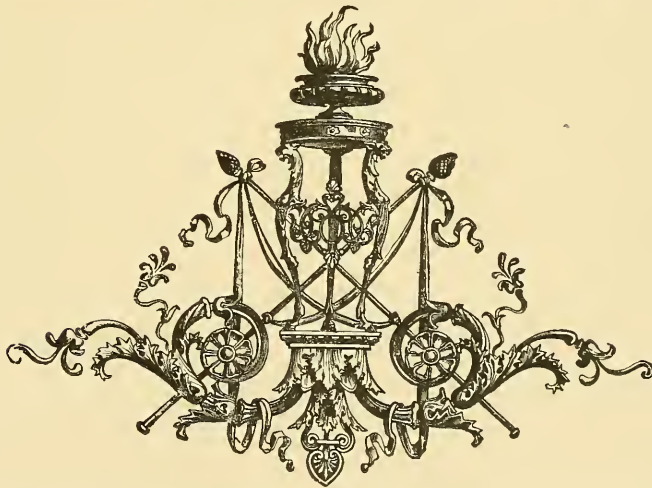


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A
Pictorial History
OF
THE WORLD'S
GREAT NATIONS

FROM THE EARLIEST DATES TO THE PRESENT TIME.

BY
CHARLOTTE M. YONGE,
Author of "The Heir of Redcliff," "Book of Golden Deeds," etc.
[THE HISTORY OF AMERICA, BY JOHN A. DOYLE.]



*"Segnius irritant animum demissa per aures, quam quæ sunt oculis
subjecta fidelibus."*

*"Things seen by the trustworthy eye, more deeply impress the mind than
those which are merely heard."*

VOL. IV.

NEW YORK:
SELMAR HESS.

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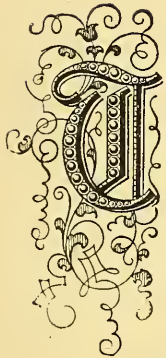
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CHAPTER IV.

THE NORTHMEN.

A.D. 858-958.



HERE were many more of the light-haired, blue-eyed people on the further side of the North Sea who worshipped Thor and Woden still, and thought that their kindred in England had fallen from the old ways. Besides, they liked to make their fortunes by getting what they could from their neighbors. Nobody was thought brave or worthy, in Norway or Denmark, who had not made some voyages in a "long keel," as a ship was called, and fought bravely, and brought home gold cups and chains or jewels to show where he had been. Their captains were called Sea Kings, and some of them went a great way, even into the Mediterranean Sea, and robbed the beautiful shores of Italy. So dreadful was it to see the fleet of long ships coming up to the shore, with a serpent for the figure-head, and a raven as the flag, and crowds of fierce warriors with axes in their hands longing for prey and bloodshed, that where we pray in church that God would deliver us from lightning and tempest, and battle and murder, our forefathers used to add, "From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord deliver us."

To England these Northern men came in great swarms, and chiefly from Denmark, so that they were generally called "the Danes." They burnt the houses, drove off the cows and sheep, killed the men, and took away the women and children to be slaves; and they were always most cruel of all where they found an Abbey with any monks or nuns, because they hated the Christian faith. By this time those seven English kingdoms alluded to had all fallen into the hands of one king. Egbert, King of the West Saxons, who reigned at Winchester, is counted as the first king of all England. His four grandsons had dreadful battles with the Danes all their lives, and the three eldest all died quite young. The youngest was the greatest and best king England ever had—Alfred the Truth-teller. He was only twenty-two years old when he came to the throne, and the kingdom was overrun everywhere with the Danes. In the northern part some had even settled down, and made themselves at home, as the English had done four hundred years before, and more and more kept coming in their ships: so that, though Alfred beat them in battle again and again, there was no

such thing as driving them away. At last he had so very few faithful men left with him, that he thought it wise to send them away, and hide himself in the Somersetshire marsh country. There is a pretty story told of him that he was hidden in the hut of a poor herdsman, whose wife, thinking he was a poor wandering soldier as he sat by the fire mending his bow and arrows, desired him to turn the cakes she had set to bake upon the hearth. Presently she found them burning, and cried out angrily, "Lazy rogue! you can't turn the cakes, though you can eat them fast enough."

However, that same spring, the brave English gained more victories; Alfred came out of his hiding-place and gathered them all together, and beat



NORTHMEN LANDING IN ENGLAND.

the Danes, so that they asked for peace. He said he would allow those who had settled in the North of England to stay there, provided they would become Christians; and he stood godfather to their chief, and gave him the name of Ethelstane. After this, Alfred had stout English ships built to meet the Danes at sea before they could come and land in England; and thus he kept them off, so that for all the rest of his reign, and that of his son and grandsons, they could do very little mischief, and for a time left off coming at all, but went to rob other countries that were not so well guarded by brave kings.

But Alfred was not only a brave warrior. He was a most good and

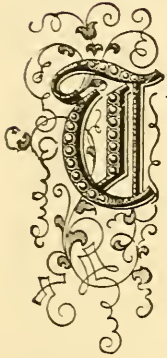
holy man, who feared God above all things, and tried to do his very best for his people. He made good laws for them, and took care that every one should be justly treated, and that nobody should do his neighbor wrong without being punished. So many Abbeys had been burnt and the monks killed by the Danes, that there were hardly any books to be had, or scholars to read them. He invited learned men from abroad, and wrote and translated books himself for them; and he had a school in his house, where he made the young nobles learn with his own sons. He built up the churches, and gave alms to the poor; and he was always ready to hear the troubles of any poor man. Though he was always working so hard, he had a disease that used to cause him terrible pain almost every day. His last years were less peaceful than the middle ones of his reign, for the Danes tried to come again; but he beat them off by his ships at sea, and when he died at fifty-two years old, in the year 901, he left England at rest and quiet; and the English always think of him as one of the greatest and best kings who ever reigned in England, or in any other country. As long as his children after him and his people went on in the good way he had taught them, all prospered with them, and no enemies hurt them; and this was all through the reigns of his son, his grandson, and great-grandsons. Their council of great men was called by a long word that means in English, "Wise Men's Meeting," and there they settled the affairs of the kingdom. The king's wife was not called queen, but lady; and what do you think lady means? It means "loaf-giver"—giver of bread to her household and the poor. So a lady's great work is to be charitable.



CHAPTER V.

THE DANISH CONQUEST.

A.D. 958-1035.



THE last very prosperous king was Alfred's great grandson, Edgar, who was owned as their over-lord by all the kings of the remains of the Britons in Wales and Scotland. Once, eight of these kings came to meet him at Chester, and rowed him in his barge along the river Dee. It was the grandest day a king of England enjoyed for many years. Edgar was called the Peaceable, because there were no attacks by the Danes at all throughout his reign. In fact, the Northmen and Danes had been fighting among themselves at home, and these fights generally ended in some one going off as a Sea-King, with all his friends, and trying to gain a new home in some fresh country. One great party of Northmen, under a very tall and mighty chief named Rollo, had, some time before, thus gone to France, and forced the king to give them a great piece of his country, just opposite to England, which was called after them Normandy. There they learned to talk French, and grew like Frenchmen, though they remained a great deal braver, and more spirited than any of their neighbors.

There were continually fleets of Danish ships coming to England; and the son of Edgar, whose name was Ethelred, was a helpless, cowardly sort of man, so slow and tardy, that his people called him Ethelred the Unready. Instead of fitting out ships to fight against the Danes, he took the money the ships ought to have cost to pay them to go away without plundering; and as to those who had come into the country without his leave, he called them his guard, took them into his pay, and let them live in the houses of the English, where they were very rude, and gave themselves great airs, making the English feed them on all their best meat, and bread, and beer, and always call them Lord Danes. He made friends himself with the Northmen, or Normans, who had settled in France, and married Emma, the daughter of their duke; but none of his plans prospered: things grew worse and worse, and his mind and his people's grew so bitter against the Danes, that at last it was agreed that, all over the South of England, every Englishman should rise up in one night and murder the Dane who lodged in his house.

Among those Danes who were thus wickedly killed was the sister of the King of Denmark. Of course he was furious when he heard of it, and came over to England determined to punish the cruel, treacherous king and people, and take the whole island for his own. He did punish the people, kill-



CANUTE BY THE SEASHORE.

ing, burning, and plundering wherever he went; but he could never get the king into his hands, for Ethelred went off in the height of the danger to Normandy, where he had before sent his wife Emma, and her children, leaving his eldest son (child of his first wife), Edmund Ironside, to fight for the kingdom as best he might.

This King of Denmark died in the midst of his English war; but his son Cnut went on with the conquest he had begun, and before long Ethelred the Unready died, and Edmund Ironside was murdered, and Cnut became King of England, as well as of Denmark. He became a Christian, and married Emma, Ethelred's widow, though she was much older than himself. He had been a hard and cruel man, but he now laid aside his evil ways, and became a noble and wise and just king, a lover of churches and good men; and the English seem to have been as well off under him as if he had been one of their own kings. There is no king of whom more pleasant stories are told. One is of his wanting to go to church at Ely Abbey one cold Candlemas Day. Ely was on a hill, in the middle of a great marsh. The marsh was frozen over; but the king's servants told him that the ice was not strong enough to bear, and they all stood looking at it. Then out stepped a stout countryman, who was so fat, that his nickname was The Pudding. "Are you all afraid?" he said, "I will go over at once before the king." "Will you so?" said the king; "then I will come after you, for whatever bears you will bear me." Cnut was a little, slight man, and he got easily over, and Pudding got a piece of land for his reward.

These servants of the king used to flatter him. They told him he was lord of land and sea, and that everything would obey him. "Let us try," said Cnut, who wished to show them how foolish and profane they were; "bring out my chair to the sea-side." He was at Southampton at the time, close to the sea, and the tide was coming in. "Now sea," he said, as he sat down, "I am thy lord; dare not to come near, nor to wet my feet." Of course the waves rolled on, and splashed over him; and he turned to his servants, and bade them never say words that took away from the honor due to the only Lord of heaven and earth. He never put on his crown again after this, but hung it up in Winchester Cathedral. He was a thorough good king, and there was much grief when he died, stranger though he was.

A great many Danes had made their homes in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire, ever since Alfred's time, and some of their customs and words still remain in England. The worst of them was that they were great drunkards, and the English learnt this bad custom from them.





A. H. PAYNE SC.

E. J. DE LOUHEBOURG F.

THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

Selmar Hess, Publisher New York



BATTLE OF CHEVY CHACE

CHAPTER VI.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

A.D. 1035-1066.



EDWARD left three sons; but one was content to be only King of Denmark, and the other two died very soon. So a great English nobleman, called Earl Godwin, set up as king—Edward, one of those sons of Ethelred the Unready who had been sent away to Normandy. He was a very kind, good, pious man, who loved to do good. He began the building of the grand church at Westminster Abbey, and he was so holy that he was called the Confessor, which is a word for good men not great enough to be called saints. He was too good-natured, as you will say when you hear that one day, when he was in bed, he saw a thief come cautiously into his room, open the chest where his treasure was, and take out the money-bags. Instead of calling any one, or seizing the man, the king only said, sleepily, "Take care, you rogue, or my chancellor will catch you and give you a good whipping."

It can be easily seen that nobody much minded such a king as this, and so there were many disturbances in his time. Some of them rose out of the king—who had been brought up in Normandy—liking the Normans better than the English. They really were much cleverer and more sensible, for they had learnt a great deal in France, while the English had forgotten much of what Alfred and his sons had taught them, and all through the long, sad reign of Ethelred had been getting more dull, and clumsy, and rude. Moreover, they had learnt of the Danes to be sad drunkards; but both they and the Danes thought the Norman French fine gentlemen, and could not bear the sight of them.

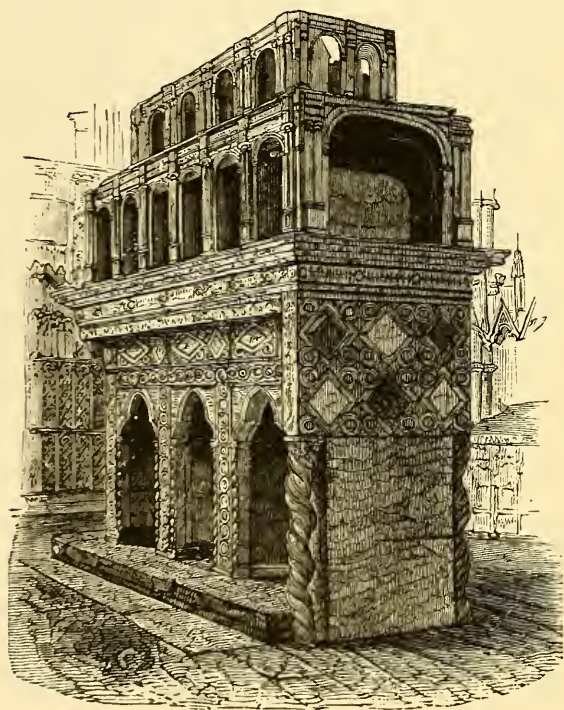
Think, then, how angry they all were when it began to be said that King Edward wanted to leave his kingdom of England to his mother's Norman nephew, Duke William, because all his own near relations were still little boys, not likely to be grown up by the time the old king died. Many of the English wished for Harold, the son of Earl Godwin, a brave, spirited man; but Edward sent him to Normandy, and there Duke William made him swear an oath not to do anything to hinder the kingdom from being given to Duke William.

Old King Edward died soon after, and Harold said at once that his

promise had been forced and cheated from him, so that he need not keep it, and he was crowned King of England. This filled William with anger. He called all his fighting Normans together, fitted out ships, and sailed across the English Channel to Dover. The figure-head of his own ship was a likeness of his second little boy, named William. He landed at Pevensey, in Sussex, and set up his camp while Harold was away in the North, fighting with a runaway brother of his own, who had brought the Norwegians to attack Yorkshire. Harold had just won a great battle over these enemies when he heard that William and his Normans had landed, and he had to hurry the whole length of England to meet them.

Many of the English would not join him, because they did not want him

for their king. But though his army was not large, it was very brave. When he reached Sussex, he placed all his men on the top of a low hill, near Hastings, and caused them to make a fence all round, with a ditch before it, and in the middle was his own standard, with a fighting man embroidered upon it. Then the Normans rode up on their war-horses to attack him, one brave knight going first, singing. The war-horses stumbled in the ditch, and the long spears of the English killed both men and horses. Then William ordered his archers to shoot their arrows high in the air. They came down like hail into the faces and on the heads of the English. Harold himself was pierced by one in the eye. The Normans charged



EDWARD THE CONFESSOR'S TOMB.

the fence again and broke through; and, by the time night came on, Harold himself, and all his brave Englishmen were dead. They did not flee away; they all stayed, and were killed, fighting to the last; and only then was Harold's standard of the fighting man rooted up, and William's standard—a cross, which had been blessed by the Pope—planted instead of it. So ended the battle of Hastings, in the year 1066.

We have related a great many "conquests" hitherto—the Roman conquest, the English conquest, the Danish conquest, and now the Norman conquest. But there have been no more since; and the kings and queens have gone on in one long line ever since, from William of Normandy down to Queen Victoria.

CHAPTER VII.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

A.D. 1066–1087.



THE king who had conquered England was a brave, strong man, who had been used to fighting and struggling ever since he was a young child.

He really feared God, and was in many ways a good man; but it was not right of him to come and take another people's country by force; and having done one wrong thing often makes people grow worse and worse. Many of the English were unwilling to have William as their king, and his Norman friends were angry that he would not let them have more of the English lands, nor break the English laws. So they were often rising up against him; and each time he had to put them down he grew more harsh and stern. He did not want to be cruel; but he did many cruel things, because it was the only way to keep England.

When the people in Northumberland rose against him, and tried to get back the old set of kings, he had the whole country wasted with fire and sword, till hardly a town or village was left standing. He did this to punish the Northumbrians, and frighten the rest. But he did another thing that was worse, because it was only for his own amusement. In Hampshire, near his castle of Winchester, there was a great space of heathy ground, and holly copse and beeches and oaks above it, with deer and boars running wild in the glades—a beautiful place for hunting, only that there were so many villages in it that the creatures were disturbed and killed. William liked hunting more than anything else—his people said he loved the high deer as if he was their father,—and to keep the place clear for them, he turned out all the inhabitants, and pulled down their houses, and made laws against any one killing his game. The place he thus cleared is still called the New Forest, though it is a thousand years old.

An old Norman law that the English grumbled about very much was, that as soon as a bell was rung at eight o'clock every evening, every one was to put out candle and fire, and go to bed. The bell was called the curfew, and many old churches ring it still.

William caused a great list to be made of all the lands in the country, and who held them. This list exists still, and is called the Domesday Book. It shows that a great deal had been taken from the English and given to the Normans. The king built castles, with immensely thick, strong walls, and loop-hole windows, whence to shoot arrows; and here he placed his Normans to keep the English down. But the Normans were even more unruly than the English, and only his strong hand kept them in order. They rode about in armor*—helmets on their heads, a shirt of mail, made of chains of iron linked together, over their bodies, gloves and boots of iron, swords by their sides, and lances in their hands—and thus they could bear down all before them. They called themselves knights, and were always made to take an oath to befriend the weak, and poor, and helpless; but they did not often keep it toward the poor English.

William had four sons—Robert, who was called Court-hose or Short-legs; William, called Rufus, because he had red hair; Henry, called Beau-clerc, or the fine scholar; and Richard, who was still a lad when he was killed by a stag in the New Forest.

Robert, the eldest, was a wild, rude, thoughtless youth; but he fancied himself fit to govern Normandy, and asked his father to give it up to him. King William answered, "I never take my clothes off before I go to bed," meaning that Robert must wait for his death. Robert could not bear to be laughed at, and was very angry. Soon after, when he was in the castle-court, his two brothers, William and Henry, grew riotous, and poured water down from the upper windows on him and his friends. He flew into a passion, dashed up-stairs with his sword in his hand, and might have killed his brothers if their father had not come in to protect them. Then he threw himself on his horse and galloped away, persuaded some friends to join him, and actually fought a battle with his own father, in which the old king was thrown off his horse, and hurt in the hand. Then Robert wandered about, living on money that his mother, Queen Matilda, sent him, though his father was angry with her for doing so, and this made the first quarrel the husband and wife ever had.

Not long after, William went to war with the King of France. He had caused a city to be burnt down, and was riding through the ruins, when his horse trod on some hot ashes, and began to plunge. The king was thrown forward on the saddle, and, being a very heavy, stout man, was so

* See page 724.



DEPARTURE FOR THE HUNT.

much hurt, that, after a few weeks, in the year 1087, he died at a little monastery, a short way from Rouen, the chief city of his dukedom of Normandy.

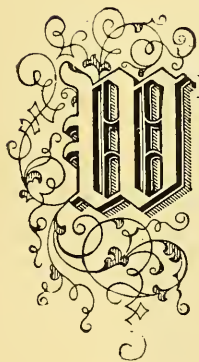
He was the greatest man of his time, and he had much good in him; and when he lay on his death-bed he grieved much for all the evil he had brought upon the English; but that could not undo it. He had been a great church-builder, and so were his Norman bishops and barons. You may always know their work, because it has round pillars, and round arches, with broad borders of zigzags, and all manner of patterns round them.

In the end, the coming of the Normans did the English much good, by brightening them up and making them less dull and heavy; but they did not like having a king and court who talked French, and who cared more for Normandy than for England.

CHAPTER VIII.

WILLIAM II., RUFUS.

A.D. 1087-1100.



WILLIAM the Conqueror was obliged to let Normandy fall to Robert, his eldest son; but he thought he could do as he pleased about England, which he had won for himself. So he sent off his second son, William, to England, with his ring to Westminster, giving him a message that he hoped the English people would have him for their king. And they did take him, though they would hardly have done so if they had known what he would be like when he was left to himself. But while he was kept under by his father, they only knew that he had red hair and a ruddy face, and had more sense than his brother Robert. He is sometimes called the Red King, but more commonly William Rufus. Things went worse than ever with the poor English in his time; for, at least, William the Conqueror had made everybody mind the law; but now, William Rufus let his cruel soldiers do just as they pleased. They would come into the farms, have the best of everything set before them, beat and misuse the people, carry off whatever they pleased, and spoil what they did not want. It was of no use to complain, for the king would only laugh and make jokes. He did not care for God or man; only for being powerful, for feasting, and for hunting.

Just at this time there was a great stir in Europe. Jerusalem—that holy city, where our blessed Lord had taught, where He had been crucified,



“THEY RODE ABOUT IN ARMOR.” (See Page 722.)

and where He had risen from the dead—was a place where every one wished to go and worship, and this they called going on pilgrimage. A beautiful

church had once been built over the sepulchre where our Lord had lain, and enriched with gifts. But for a long time past Jerusalem had been in the hands of an Eastern people, who think their false prophet, Mohammed, greater than our blessed Lord. These Mohammedans used to rob and ill-treat the pilgrims, and make them pay great sums of money for leave to come into Jerusalem. At last a pilgrim, named Peter the Hermit, came home, and got leave from the Pope to try to waken up all the Christian princes and knights to go to the Holy Land, and fight to get the Holy Sepulchre back into Christian hands again. He used to preach in the open air, and the people who heard him were so stirred up that they all shouted out, "It is God's will! It is God's will!" And each who undertook to go and fight in the East received a cross cut out in cloth, red or white, to wear on his shoulder. Many thousands promised to go on this crusade, as they called it, and among them was Robert, Duke of Normandy. But he had wasted his money, so that he could not fit out an army to take with him. So he offered to give up Normandy to his brother William while he was gone, if William would let him have the money he wanted. The Red King was very ready to make such a bargain, but he laughed at the Crusaders, and thought that they were wasting their time and trouble.

They had a very good man to lead them, named Godfrey de Bouillon; and, after many toils and troubles, they did gain Jerusalem, and could kneel, weeping, at the Holy Sepulchre. It was proposed to make Robert King of Jerusalem, but he would not accept the offer, and Godfrey was made king instead, and stayed to guard the holy places, while Duke Robert set out on his return home.

In the meantime, the Red King had gone on in as fierce and ungodly a way as ever, laughing good advice to scorn, and driving away the good Archbishop of Canterbury, St. Anselm, and every one else who tried to warn him or withstand his wickedness. One day, in the year 1100, he went out to hunt deer in the New Forest, which his father had wasted, laughing and jesting in his rough way. By and by he was found dead under an oak-tree, with an arrow through his heart; and a wood-cutter took up his body in his cart, and carried it to Winchester Cathedral, where it was buried.

Who shot the arrow nobody knew, and nobody ever will know. Some thought it must be a knight, named Walter Tyrrell, to whom the king had given three long good arrows that morning. He rode straight away to Southampton, and went off to the Holy Land; so it is likely that he knew something about the king's death. But he never seems to have told any one, whether it was only an accident, or a murder, or who did it. Anyway, it was a fearful end, for a bad man to die in his sin, without a moment to repent and pray.

CHAPTER IX.

HENRY I., BEAUCLERC.

A.D. 1100-1135.



HENRY, the brother of William Rufus, was one of the hunting party: and as soon as the cry spread through the forest that the king was dead, he rode off at full speed to Winchester, and took possession of all his brother's treasure. William Rufus had never been married, and left no children, and Henry was much the least violent and most sensible of the brothers; and, as he promised to govern according to the old laws of England, he did not find it difficult to persuade the people to let him be crowned king.

He was not really a good man, and he could be very cruel sometimes, as well as false and cunning; but he kept good order, and would not allow such horrible things to be done as in his brother's time. So the English were better off than they had been, and used to say the king would let nobody break the laws but himself. They were pleased, too, that Henry married a lady who was half English—Maude, the daughter of Malcolm Greathead, King of Scotland, and of a lady of the old English royal line. They loved her greatly, and called her good Queen Maude.

Robert came back to Normandy, and tried to make himself King of England; but Henry soon drove him back. The brothers went on quarrelling for some years, and Robert managed Normandy miserably, and wasted his money, so that he sometimes had no clothes to wear, and lay in bed for want of them.

Some of the Normans could not bear this any longer, and invited Henry to come and take the dukedom. He came with an army, many of whom were English, and fought a battle with Robert and his faithful Normans at Tenchebray, in Normandy. They gained a great victory, and the English thought it made up for Hastings. Poor Robert was made prisoner by his brother, who sent him off to Cardiff Castle, in Wales, where he lived for twenty-eight years, and then died, and was buried in Gloucester Cathedral, with his figure made in bog oak over his monument.

Henry had two children—William and Maude. The girl was married to the Emperor of Germany, and the boy was to be the husband of Alice, daughter to the Count of Anjou, a great French prince, whose lands were

near Normandy. It was the custom to marry children very young then, before they were old enough to leave their parents and make a home for themselves. So William was taken by his father to Anjou, and there married to the little girl, and then she was left behind, while he was to return to England with his father. Just as he was going to embark, a man came to the king, and begged to have the honor of taking him in his new vessel, called the White Ship, saying that his father had steered William the Conqueror's ship. Henry could not change his own plans; but, as the man begged so hard, he said his son, the young bridegroom, and his friends might go in the White Ship. They sailed in the evening, and there was great merry-making on board, till the sailors grew so drunk that they did not know how to guide the ship, and ran her against a rock. She filled with water and began to sink. A boat was lowered, and William safely placed in it; but, just as he was rowed off, he heard the cries of the ladies who were left behind, and caused the oarsmen to turn back for them. So many drowning wretches crowded into it, as soon as it came near, that it sank with their weight, and all were lost. Only the top-mast of the ship remained above water, and to it clung a butcher and the owner of the ship all night long. When daylight came, and the owner knew that the king's son was really dead, and by his fault, he lost heart, let go the mast and was drowned. Only the butcher was taken off alive; and for a long time no one dared to tell the king what had happened. At last a boy was sent to fall at his feet, and tell him his son was dead. He was a broken-hearted man, and never knew gladness again all the rest of his life.

His daughter Maude had lost her German husband, and come home. He made her marry Geoffrey of Anjou, the brother of his son's young wife, and called upon all his chief noblemen to swear that they would take her for their queen in England and their duchess in Normandy after his own death.

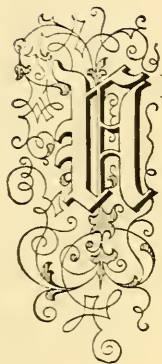
He did not live much longer. His death was caused, in the year 1135, by eating too much of the fish called lamprey, and he was buried in Reading Abbey.



CHAPTER X.

STEPHEN.

A.D. 1135-1154.



EITHER English nor Normans had ever been ruled by a woman, and the Empress Maude, as she still called herself, was a proud, disagreeable, ill-tempered woman, whom nobody liked. So her cousin, Stephen de Blois—whose mother, Adela, had been a daughter of William the Conqueror—thought to obtain the crown of England by promising to give every one what they wished. It was very wrong of him; for he, like all the other barons, had sworn that Maude should reign. But the people knew he was a kindly, gracious sort of person, and greatly preferred him to her. So he was crowned; and at once all the Norman barons, whom King Henry had kept down, began to think they could have their own way. They built strong castles, and hired men, with whom they made war upon each other, robbed one another's tenants, and, when they saw a peaceable traveler on his way, they would dash down upon him, drag him into the castle, take away all the jewels or money he had about him, or, if he had none, they would shut him up and torment him till he could get his friends to pay them a sum to let him loose.

Stephen, who was a kind-hearted man himself, tried to stop these cruelties; but then the barons turned round on him, told him he was not their proper king, and invited Maude to come and be crowned in his stead. She came very willingly; and her uncle, King David of Scotland, set out with an army to fight for her; but all the English in the north came out to drive him back; and they beat him and his Scots at what they called the Battle of the Standard, because the English had a holy standard, which was kept in Durham Cathedral. Soon after, Stephen was taken prisoner at a battle at Lincoln, and there was nothing to prevent Maude from being queen but her own bad temper. She went to Winchester, and was there proclaimed; but she would not speak kindly or gently to the people; and when her friends entreated her to reply more kindly, she flew into a passion, and it is even said that she gave a box on the ear to her uncle—the good King of Scotland, who had come to help her—for reproving her for her harsh answers. When Stephen's wife came to beg her to set him free, promising that he should go away beyond the seas, and never interfere with her again,

she would not listen, and drove her away. But she soon found how foolish she had been. Stephen's friends would have been willing that he should give up trying to be king, but they could not leave him in prison for life; and



NORMAN BARONS WAYLAYING TRAVELERS.

so they went on fighting for him, while more and more of the English joined them, as they felt how bad and unkind a queen they had in the Empress. Indeed, she was so proud and violent, that her husband would not come

over to England to help her, but stayed to govern Normandy. She was soon in great distress, and had to flee from Winchester, riding through the midst of the enemy, and losing almost all her friends by the way, as they were slain or made prisoners. Her best helper of all—Earl Robert of Gloucester—was taken while guarding her; and she could only get to his town of Gloucester by lying down in a coffin, with holes for air, and being thus carried through all the country, where she had made every one hate her.

Stephen's wife offered to set the Earl free, if the other side would release her husband; and this exchange was brought about. Robert then went to Normandy, to fetch Maude's little son Henry, who was ten years old, leaving her, as he thought, safe in Oxford Castle; but no sooner was he gone than Stephen brought his army, and besieged the castle—that is, he brought his men round it, tried to climb up the walls, or beat them down with heavy beams, and hindered any food from being brought in. Everything in the castle that could be eaten was gone; but Maude was determined not to fall into her enemy's hands. It was the depth of winter; the river below the walls was frozen over, and snow was on the ground. One dark night, Maude dressed herself and three of her knights all in white, and they were, one by one, let down by ropes from the walls. No one saw them in the snow. They crossed the river on the ice, walked a great part of the night, and at last came to Abingdon, where horses were waiting for them, and thence they rode to Wallingford, where Maude met her little son.

There was not much more fighting after this. Stephen kept all the eastern part of the kingdom, and Henry was brought up at Gloucester till his father sent for him, to take leave of him before going on a crusade. Geoffrey died during this crusade. He was fond of hunting, and was generally seen with a spray of broom blossom in his cap. The French name for this plant is *genet*; and thus his nickname was "Plantagenet;" and this became a kind of surname to the kings of England.

Henry, called Fitz-empress—or "the Empress's son"—came to England again as soon as he was grown up; but, instead of going to war, he made an agreement with Stephen. Henry would not attack Stephen any more, but leave him to reign all the days of his life, provided Stephen engaged that Henry should reign instead of his own son after his death. This made Stephen's son, Eustace, very angry, and he went away in a rage to raise troops to maintain his cause; but he died suddenly in the midst of his wild doings, and the king, his father, did not live long after him, but died in the year 1154.

Maude had learnt wisdom by her misfortunes. She had no further desire to be queen, but lived a retired life in a convent, and was much more respected there than as queen.

CHAPTER XI.

HENRY II., FITZ-EMPRESS.

A.D. 1154-1189.



HENRY FITZ-EMPRESS is counted as the first king of the Plantagenet family, also called the House of Anjou. He was a very clever, brisk, spirited man, who hardly ever sat down, but was always going from place to place, and who would let nobody disobey him. He kept everybody in order, pulled down almost all the Castles that had been built in Stephen's time, and would not let the barons ill-treat the people. Indeed, every one had been so mixed up together during the wars in Stephen's reign, that the grandchildren of the Normans who had come over with William the Conqueror were now quite English in their feelings. French was, however, chiefly spoken at court. The king was really a Frenchman, and he married a French wife, Eleanor, the lady of Aquitaine, a great dukedom in the south of France; and, as Henry had already Normandy and Anjou, he really was lord of nearly half France. He ruled England well; but he was not a good man, for he cared for power and pleasure more than for what was right; and sometimes he fell into such rages that he would roll on the floor, and bite the rushes and sticks it was strewn with. He made many laws. One was that, if a priest or monk was thought to have committed any crime, he should be tried by the king's judge, instead of by the bishop. The Archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas à Becket, did not think it right to consent to this law; and, though he and the king had once been great friends, Henry was so angry with him that he was forced to leave England, and take shelter with the King of France. Six years passed by, and the king pretended to be reconciled to him, but still, when they met, would not give him the kiss of peace. The archbishop knew that this showed that the king still hated him; but his flock had been so long without a shepherd that he thought it his duty to go back to them. Just after his return, he laid under censure some persons who had given offence. They went and complained to the king, and Henry exclaimed in a passion, "Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest?" Four of his knights who heard these words set forth for Canterbury. The archbishop guessed why they were come; but he would not flee again, and waited for them by the altar in the cathedral, not

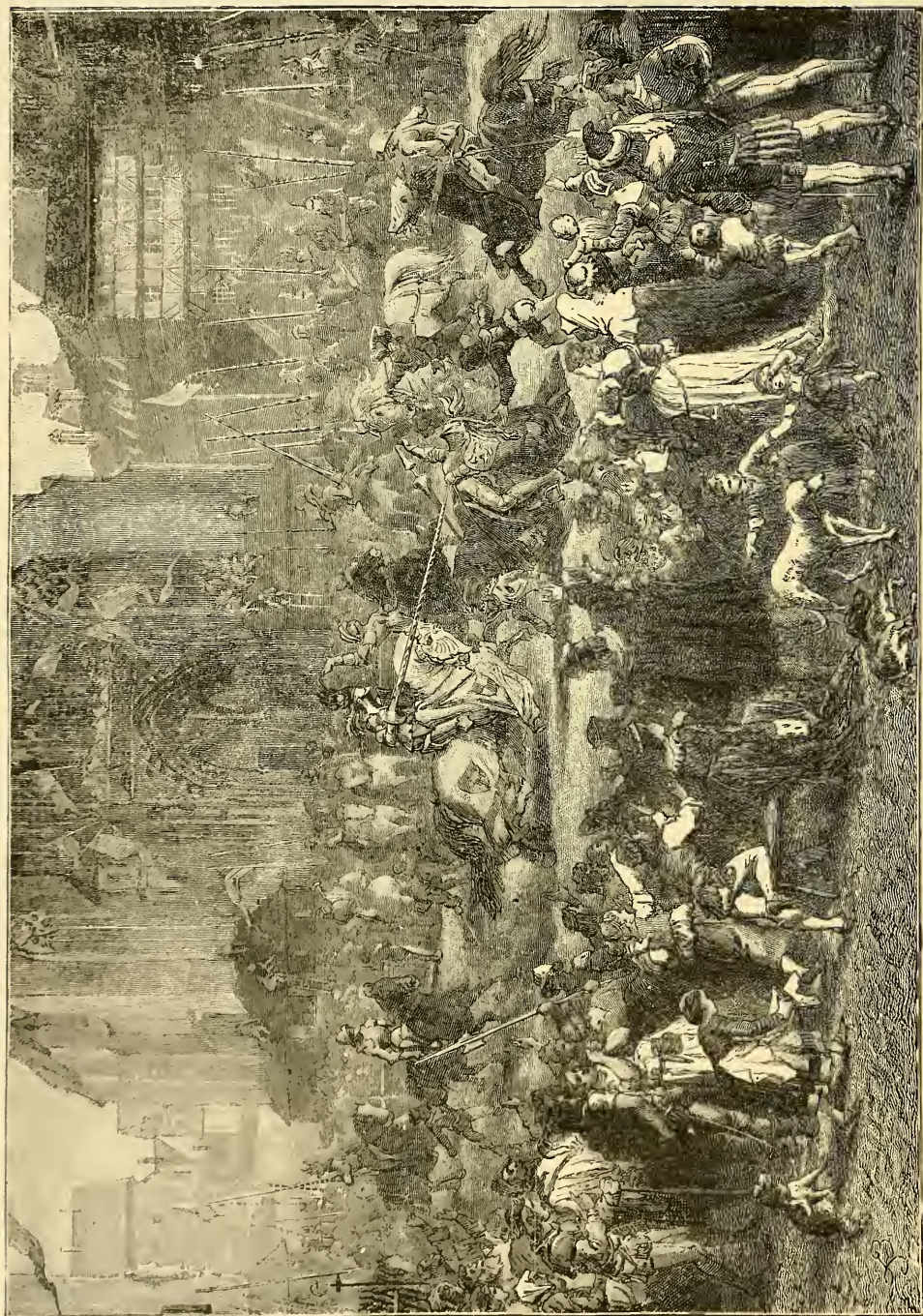
even letting the doors be shut. There they slew him; and thither, in great grief at the effect of his own words, the king came—three years later—to show his penitence by entering barefoot, kneeling before Thomas's tomb, and causing every priest or monk in turn to strike him with a rod. We should not exactly call Thomas a martyr now, but he was thought so then, because he died for upholding the privileges of the Church, and he was held to be a very great saint.

While this dispute was going on, the Earl of Pembroke, called Strongbow, one of Henry's nobles, had gone over to Ireland, and obtained a little kingdom there, which he professed to hold of Henry; and thus the Kings of England became Lords of Ireland, though for a long time they only had the Province of Leinster, and were always at war with the Irish around.

Henry was a most powerful king; but his latter years were very unhappy. His wife was not a good woman, and her sons were all disobedient and rebellious. Once all the three eldest, Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey, and their mother, ran away together from his court, and began to make war upon him. He was much stronger and wiser than they, so he soon forced them to submit; and he sent Queen Eleanor away, and shut her up in a strong castle in England as long as he lived. Her sons were much more fond of her than of their father, and they thought this usage so hard, that they were all the more ready to break out against him. The eldest son, Henry, was leading an army against his father, when he was taken ill and felt himself dying. He sent an entreaty that his father would forgive him, and come to see him; but the young man had so often been false and treacherous, that Henry feared it was only a trick to get him as a prisoner, and only sent his ring and a message of pardon; and young Henry died, pressing the ring to his lips, and longing to hear his father's voice.

Geoffrey, the third son, was killed by a fall from his horse, and there were only two left alive, Richard and John. Just at this time, news came that the Mohammedans in the Holy Land had won Jerusalem back again; and the Pope called on all Christian princes to leave off quarreling, and go on a crusade to recover the Holy Sepulchre.

The kings of England and France, young Richard, and many more, were roused to take the cross; but while arrangements for going were being made, a fresh dispute about them arose, and Richard went away in a rage, got his friends together, and, with King Philip of France to help him, began to make war. His father was feeble, and worn out, and could not resist as in former times. He fell ill, and gave up the struggle, saying he would grant all they asked. The list of Richard's friends whom he was to pardon was brought to him, and the first name he saw in it was that of



A TOURNAMENT IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

John, his youngest son, and his darling, the one who had never before rebelled. That quite broke his heart, his illness grew worse, and he talked about an old eagle being torn to pieces by his eaglets. And so, in the year 1189, Henry II. died the saddest death, perhaps, that an old man can die, for his sons had brought down his gray hairs with sorrow to the grave.

CHAPTER XII.

RICHARD I., LION-HEART.

A.D. 1189-1199.



RICHARD was greatly grieved at his father's death, and when he came and looked at the dead body, in Fontevraud Abbey Church, he cried out, "Alas! it was I who killed him!" But it was too late now: he could not make up for what he had done, and he had to think about the Crusade he had promised to make. Richard was so brave and strong that he was called Lion-heart; he was very noble and good in some ways, but his fierce, passionate temper did him a great deal of harm. He, and King Philip of France, and several other great princes, all met in the Island of Sicily in the Mediterranean Sea, and thence sailed for the Holy Land. The lady whom Richard was to marry came to meet him in Sicily. Her name was Berengaria; but, as it was Lent, he did not marry her then. She went on to the Holy Land in a ship with his sister Joan, and tried to land in the island of Cyprus; but the people were inhospitable, and would not let them come. So Richard, in his great anger, conquered the isle, and was married to Berengaria there.

The Mohammedans who held Palestine at that time were called Saracens, and had a very brave prince at their head named Saladin, which means Splendor of Religion. He was very good, just, upright, and truth-telling, and his Saracens fought so well, that the Crusaders would hardly have won a bit of ground if the Lion-heart had not been so brave. At last, they did take one city on the coast named Acre; and one of the princes, Leopold, Duke of Austria, set up his banner on the walls. Richard did not think it ought to be there: he pulled it up and threw it down into the ditch, asking the duke how he dared take the honors of a king. Leopold was sullen and brooded over the insult, and King Philip thought Richard so overbearing,

that he could not bear to be in the army with him any longer. In truth, though Philip had pretended to be his friend, and had taken his part against his father, that was really only to hurt King Henry; he hated Richard quite as much, or more, and only wanted to get home first in order to do him as much harm as he could while he was away. So Philip said it was too hot for him in the Holy Land, and made him ill. He sailed back to France, while Richard remained, though the climate really did hurt his health, and he often had fevers there. When he was ill, Saladin used to send him grapes, and do all he could to show how highly he thought of so brave a man. Once Saladin sent him a beautiful horse; Richard told the Earl of Salisbury to try it, and no sooner was the earl mounted, than the horse ran away with him to the Saracen army. Saladin was very much vexed, and was afraid it would be taken for a trick to make the English king prisoner, and he gave the earl a quieter horse to ride back with. Richard fought one terrible battle at Joppa with the Saracens, and then he tried to go on to take Jerusalem; but he wanted to leave a good strong castle behind him at Ascalon, and set all his men to work to build it up. When they grumbled, he worked with them, and asked the duke to do the same; but Leopold said gruffly that he was not a carpenter or a mason. Richard was so provoked that he struck him a blow, and the duke went home in a rage.

So many men had gone home, that Richard found his army was not strong enough to try to take Jerusalem. He was greatly grieved, for he knew it was his own fault for not having shown the temper of a Crusader; and when he came to the top of a hill, whence the Holy City could be seen, he would not look at it, but turned away, saying, "They who are not worthy to win it are not worthy to behold it." It was of no use for him to stay with so few men; besides, tidings came from home that King Philip and his own brother, John, were doing all the mischief they could. So he made a peace for three years between the Saracens and Christians, hoping to come back again after that to rescue Jerusalem. But on his way home there were terrible storms; his ships were scattered, and his own ship was driven up into the Adriatic Sea, where he was robbed by pirates, or sea-robbers, and then was shipwrecked. There was no way for him to get home but through the lands of Leopold of Austria; so he pretended to be a merchant, and set out attended only by a boy. He fell ill at a little inn, and while he was in bed the boy went into the kitchen with the king's glove in his belt. It was an embroidered glove, such as merchants never used, and people asked questions, and guessed that the boy's master must be some great man. The Duke of Austria heard of it, sent soldiers to take him, and shut him up as a prisoner in one of his castles. Afterward, the duke gave him up for a large sum of money to the Emperor of Germany. All this time Richard's wife

and mother had been in great sorrow and fear, trying to find out what had become of him. It is said that he was found at last by his friend, the minstrel Blondel. A minstrel was a person who made verses and sung them. Many of the nobles and knights in Queen Eleanor's Duchy of Aquitaine



MINSTRELS AND JUGGLERS AT COURT.

were minstrels—and Richard was a very good one himself, and amused himself in his captivity by making verses. This is certainly true; though we cannot answer for it that the pretty story is true, which says that Blondel sung at all the castle courts in Germany, till he heard his master's voice take up and reply to his song.

The Queens Eleanor and Berengaria raised a ransom—that is, a sum of

money to buy his freedom—though his brother John tried to prevent her, and the King of France did his best to hinder the emperor from releasing him; but the Pope insisted that the brave crusader should be set at liberty; and Richard came home, after a year and a half of captivity. He freely forgave John for all the mischief he had done or tried to do, though he thought so ill of him as to say, "I wish I may forget John's injuries to me as soon as he will forget my pardon of him."

Richard only lived two years after he came back. He was besieging a castle in Aquitaine, where there was some treasure that he thought was unlawfully kept from him, when he was struck in the shoulder by a bolt from a cross-bow, and the surgeons treated it so unskillfully that in a few days he died. The man who had shot the bolt was made prisoner, but the Lion-heart's last act was to command that no harm should be done to him. The soldiers, however, in their grief and rage for the king, did put him to death in a cruel manner.

Richard desired to be buried at the feet of his father, in Fontevraud Abbey, where he had once bewailed his undutiful conduct, and now wished his body for ever to lie in penitence. The figures, in stone, of the father, mother, and son, who quarreled so much in life, all lie on one monument now, and with them Richard's youngest sister, Joan, who died nearly at the same time as he died, partly of grief for him.

CHAPTER XIII.

JOHN, LACKLAND.

A.D. 1199-1216.



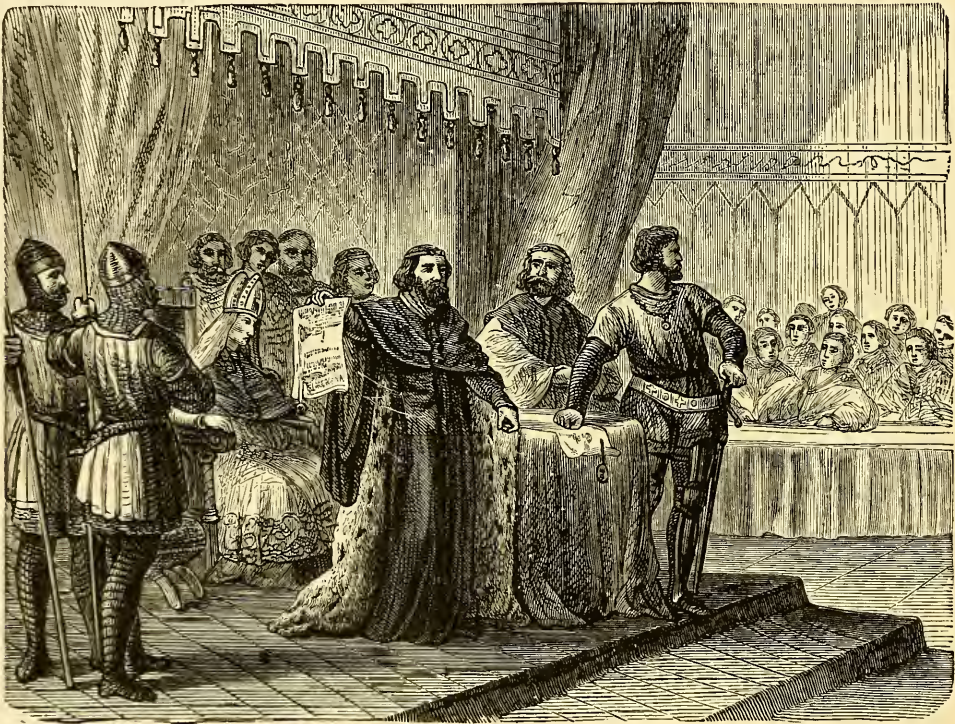
As a kind of joke, John, King Henry's youngest son, had been called Lackland, because he had nothing when his brothers each had some great dukedom. The name suited him only too well before the end of his life. The English made him king at once. They always did take a grown-up man for their king, if the last king's son was but a child. Richard had never had any children, but his brother Geoffrey, who was older than John, had left a son named Arthur, who was about twelve years old, and who was rightly the Duke of Normandy and Count of Anjou. King Philip, who was always glad to vex whoever was king of England, took Arthur under his protection, and pro-

minged to get Normandy out of John's hands. However, John had a meeting with him and persuaded him to desert Arthur, and marry his son Louis to John's own niece, Blanche, who had a chance of being queen of part of Spain. Still Arthur lived at the French King's court, and when he was sixteen years old, Philip helped him to raise an army and go to try his fortune against his uncle. He laid siege to Mirabeau, a town where his grandmother, Queen Eleanor, was living. John, who was then in Normandy, hurried to her rescue, beat Arthur's army, made him prisoner and carried him off, first to Rouen, and then to the strong castle of Falaise. Nobody quite knows what was done to him there. The governor, Hubert de Burgh, once found him fighting hard, though with no weapon but a stool, to defend himself from some ruffians who had been sent to put out his eyes. Hubert saved him from these men, but shortly after this good man was sent elsewhere by the king, and John came himself to Falaise. Arthur was never seen alive again, and it is believed that John took him out in a boat in the river at night, stabbed him with his own hand, and threw his body into the river. There was, any way, no doubt that John was guilty of his nephew's death, and he was fully known to be one of the most selfish and cruel men who ever lived; and so lazy, that he let Philip take Normandy from him, without stirring a finger to save the grand old dukedom of his forefathers; so that nothing is left of it to England now but the four little islands, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark.

Matters became much worse in England, when he quarreled with the Pope, whose name was Innocent, about who should be archbishop of Canterbury. The Pope wanted a man named Stephen Langton to be archbishop, but the king swore he should never come into the kingdom. Then the Pope punished the kingdom, by forbidding all church services in all parish churches. This was termed putting the kingdom under an interdict. John was not much distressed by this, though his people were; but when he found that Innocent was stirring up the King of France to come to attack him, he thought it time to make his peace with the Pope. So he not only consented to receive Stephen Langton, but he even knelt down before the Pope's legate, or messenger, and took off his crown, giving it up to the legate, in token that he only held the kingdom from the Pope. It was two or three days before it was given back to him; and the Pope held himself to be lord of England, and made the king and people pay him money whenever he demanded it.

All this time John's cruelty and savageness were making the whole kingdom miserable; and at last the great barons could bear it no longer. They met together and agreed that they would make John swear to govern by the good old English laws that had prevailed before the Normans came. The difficulty was to be sure of what these laws were, for most of the copies

of them had been lost. However, Archbishop Langton and some of the wisest of the barons put together a set of laws—some copied, some recollected, some old, some new—but all such as to give the barons some control of the king, and hinder him from getting savage soldiers together to frighten people into doing whatever he chose to make them. These laws they called *Magna Carta*, or the great charter; and they all came in armor, and took John by surprise at Windsor. He came to meet them in a meadow named Runnymede, on the bank of the Thames, and there they forced him to sign the charter, for which all Englishmen are grateful to them.



KING JOHN SIGNS MAGNA CARTA.

But he did not mean to keep it! No, not he! He had one of his father's fits of rage when he got back to Windsor Castle—he gnawed the sticks for rage, and swore he was no king. Then he sent for more of the fierce soldiers, who went about in bands ready to be hired, and prepared to take vengeance on the barons. They found themselves not strong enough to make head against him; so they invited Louis, the son of Philip of France and husband of John's niece, to come and be their king. He came, and was received in London, while John and his bands of soldiers were roaming about the eastern counties, wasting and burning everywhere till they came to the Wash—that curious bay between Lincolnshire and Norfolk, where so

many rivers run into the sea. There is a safe way across the sands in this bay when the tide is low, but when it is coming in and meets the rivers, the waters rise suddenly into a flood. So it happened to King John; he did get out himself, but all the carts with his goods and treasures were lost, and many of his men. He was full of rage and grief, but he went on to the abbey where he meant to sleep. He supped on peaches and new ale, and soon after became very ill. He died in a few days, a miserable, disgraced man, with half his people fighting against him and London in the hands of his worst enemy

CHAPTER XIV.

HENRY III., OF WINCHESTER.

A.D. 1216-1272.



KING John left two little sons, Henry and Richard, nine and seven years old, and all the English barons felt that they would rather have Henry as their king than the French Louis, whom they had only called in because John was such a wretch. So when little Henry had been crowned at Gloucester, with his mother's bracelet, swearing to rule according to Magna Carta, and good Hubert de Burgh undertook to govern for him, one baron after another came back to him. Louis was beaten in a battle at Lincoln; and when his wife sent him more troops, Hubert de Burgh got ships together and sunk many vessels, and drove the others back in the Straits of Dover; so that Louis was forced to go home and leave England in peace.

Henry must have been too young to understand about Magna Carta when he swore to it, but it was the trouble of all his long reign to get him to observe it. It was not that he was wicked like his father—for he was very religious and kind-hearted—but he was too good-natured, and never could say No to anybody. Bad advisers got about him when he grew up, and persuaded him to let them take good Hubert de Burgh and imprison him. When they seized him, they took him to a blacksmith to have chains put on his feet, but the smith said he would never forge chains for the man who had saved his country from the French. He was afterward set free, and died in peace and honor.

Henry was a builder of beautiful churches. Westminster Abbey, as it is now, was one. And he was so charitable to the poor that, when he had

his children weighed, he gave their weight in gold and silver in alms. But he gave to every one who asked, and so always wanted money; and sometimes his men could get nothing for the king and queen to eat, but by going and taking sheep and poultry from the poor farmers around; so that things were nearly as bad as under William Rufus—because the king was so foolishly good-natured. The Pope was always sending for money, too; and the king tried to raise it in ways that, according to Magna Carta, he had sworn not to do. His foreign friends told him that if he minded Magna Carta he would be a poor creature—not like a king, who might do all he pleased; and whenever he listened to them he broke the laws of Magna Carta. Then, when his barons complained and frightened him, he swore again to keep them; so that nobody could trust him, and his weakness was almost as bad for the kingdom as John's wickedness. When they could bear it no longer, the barons all met him at the council which was called the Parliament, from a French word meaning talk. This time they came in armor, bringing all their fighting men, and declared that he had broken his word so often that they should appoint some of their own number to watch him, and hinder his doing anything against the laws he had sworn to observe, or from getting money from the people without their consent. He was very angry; but he was in their power, and had to submit to swear that so it should be; and Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, who had married his sister, was appointed among the lords who were to keep watch over him. Henry could not bear this; he felt himself to be less than ever a king, and tried to break loose. He had never cared for his promises; but his brave son Edward, who was now grown up, cared a great deal: and they put the question to Louis, King of France, whether the king was bound by the oath he had made to be under Montfort and his council. This Louis was son to the one who had been driven back by Hubert de Burgh. He was one of the best men and kings that ever lived, and he tried to judge rightly; but he scarcely thought how much provocation Henry had given, when he said that subjects had no right to frighten their king, and so that Henry and Edward were not obliged to keep the oath.

Thereupon they got an army together, and so did Simon de Montfort and the barons; and they met at a place called Lewes, in Sussex. Edward got the advantage at first, and galloped away, driving his enemies before him; but when he turned round and came back, he found that Simon de Montfort had beaten the rest of the army, and made his father and uncle Richard prisoners. Indeed, the barons threatened to cut off Richard's head if Edward went on fighting with them; and to save his uncle's life he, too, gave himself up to them.

Simon de Montfort now governed all the kingdom. He still called Henry king, but did not let him do anything, and watched him closely that

he might not get away; and Edward was kept a prisoner—first in one castle, then in another. Simon was a good and high-minded man himself, who only wanted to do what was best for every one; but he had a family of proud and overbearing sons, who treated all who came in their way so ill, that most of the barons quarreled with them. One of these barons sent Edward a beautiful horse; and one day when he was riding out from Hereford Castle with his keepers, he proposed to them to ride races, while he was to look on and decide which was the swiftest. Thus they all tired out their horses, and as soon as he saw that they could hardly get them along, Edward spurred his own fresh horse, and galloped off to meet the friends



CRUSADERS IN BATTLE.

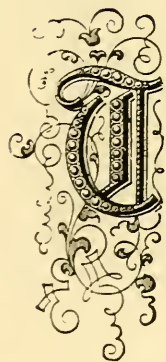
who were waiting for him. All who were discontented with the Montforts joined him, and he soon had a large army. He marched against Montfort, and met him at Evesham. The poor old king was in Montfort's army, and in the battle was thrown down, and would have been killed if he had not called out—"Save me, save me, I am Henry of Winchester." His son heard the call, and, rushing to his side, carried him to a place of safety. His army was much the strongest, and Montfort had known from the first that there was no hope for him. "God have mercy on our souls, for our bodies are Sir Edward's," he had said; and he died bravely on the field of battle.

Edward brought his father back to reign in all honor, but he took the whole management of the kingdom, and soon set things in order again—taking care that Magna Carta should be properly observed. When everything was peaceful at home, he set out upon a Crusade with the good King of France, and while he was gone his father died, after a reign of fifty-six years. There were only three English kings who reigned more than fifty years, and these are easy to remember, as each was the third of his name—Henry III., Edward III., and George III. In the reign of Henry III. the custom of having Parliaments was established, and the king was prevented from getting money from the people unless the Parliament granted it. The Parliament has, ever since, been made up of great lords, who are born to it: and, besides them, of men chosen by the people in the counties and towns, to speak and decide for them. The clergy have a meeting of their own called Convocation; and these three—Clergy, Lords, and Commons—are called the Three Estates of the Realm.

CHAPTER XV.

EDWARD I., LONGSHANKS.

A.D. 1272–1307.



HE son of Henry III. returned from the Holy Land to be one of the noblest, best, and wisest kings. Edward I.—called Longshanks in a kind of joke, because he was the tallest man in the Court—was very grand-looking and handsome; and could leap, run, ride, and fight in his heavy armor better than any one else. He was brave, just, and affectionate; and his sweet wife, Eleanor of Castille, was warmly loved by him and all the nation. He built as many churches and was as charitable as his father, but he was much more careful only to make good men bishops, and he allowed no wasting or idling. He faithfully obeyed Magna Carta, and made every one else obey the law—indeed many good laws and customs have begun from his time. Order was the great thing he cared for, and under him the English grew prosperous and happy, when nobody was allowed to rob them.

The Welsh were, however, terrible robbers. It must be remembered that they are the remains of the old Britons, who used to have all Britain. They had never left off thinking they had a right to it, and coming down

out of their mountains to burn the houses and steal the cattle of the Saxons, as they still called the English. Edward tried to make friends with their princes—Llewellyn and David—and to make them keep their people in order. He gave David lands in England, and let Llewellyn marry his cousin, Eleanor de Montfort. But they broke their promises shamefully, and did such savage things to the English on their borders that he was forced to put a stop to it, and went to war. David was made prisoner, and put to death as a traitor; and Llewellyn was met by some soldiers near the bridge of Builth and killed, without their knowing who he was. Edward had, in the meantime, conquered most of the country; and he told the Welsh chiefs that, if they would come and meet him at Caernarvon Castle, he would give them a prince who had been born in their country—had never spoken a word of any language but theirs. They all came, and the king came down to them with his own little baby son in his arms, who had lately been born in Caernarvon Castle, and, of course, had never spoken any language at all. The Welsh were obliged to accept him; and he had a Welsh nurse, that the first words he spoke might be Welsh. They thought he would have been altogether theirs, as he then had an elder brother; but in a year or two the oldest boy died; and ever since that time, the eldest son of the King of England has always been Prince of Wales.

There was a plan for the little Prince Edward of Caernarvon being married to a little girl, who was grand-daughter to the King of Scotland, and would be Queen of Scotland herself—and this would have led to the whole island being under one king—but, unfortunately, the little maiden died. It was so hard to decide who ought to reign, out of all her cousins, that they asked King Edward to choose among them—since every one knew that a great piece of Scotland belonged to him as over-lord, just as his own dukedom of Aquitaine belonged to the King of France over him; and the Kings of Scotland always used to pay homage to those of England for it.

Edward chose John Balliol, the one who had the best right; but he made him understand that, as over-lord, he meant to see that as good order was kept in Scotland as in England. Now, the English kings had never meddled with Scottish affairs before, and the Scots were furious at finding that he did so. They said it was insulting them and their king: and poor Balliol did not know what to do among them, but let them defy Edward in his name. This brought Edward and his army to Scotland. The strong places were taken and filled with English soldiers, and Balliol was made prisoner, adjudged to have rebelled against his lord and forfeited his kingdom, and was sent away to France.

Edward thought it would be much better for the whole country to join Scotland to England, and rule it himself. And so, no doubt, it would have been; but many of the Scots were not willing,—and in spite of all the care

he could take, the soldiers who guarded his castles often behaved shamefully to the people round them. One gentleman, named William Wallace, whose home had been broken up by some soldiers, fled to the woods and hills, and drew so many Scots round him that he had quite an army. There was a great fight at the Bridge of Stirling; the English governors were beaten, and Wallace led his men over the Border into Northumberland, where they plundered and burnt wherever they went, in revenge for what had been done in Scotland.

Edward gathered his forces and came to Scotland. The army that Wallace had drawn together could not stand before him, but was defeated at Falkirk, and Wallace had to take to the woods. Edward promised pardon to all who would submit,—and almost all did; but Wallace still lurked in the hills, till one of his own countrymen betrayed him to the English, when he was sent to London, and put to death.

All seemed quieted, and English garrisons—that is, guarding soldiers—were in all the Scottish towns and castles, when, suddenly, Robert Bruce, one of the half English, half Scottish nobles between whom Edward had judged, ran away from the English court, with his horse's shoes put on backwards. The next thing that was heard of him was, that he had quarreled with one of his cousins in the church at Dumfries, and stabbed him to the heart, and then had gone to Scone and had been crowned King of Scotland.

Edward was bitterly angry now. He sent on an army to deal unsparingly with the rising, and set out to follow with his son, now grown to man's estate. Crueller things than he had ever allowed before were done to the places where Robert Bruce had been acknowledged as king, and his friends were hung as traitors wherever they were found; but Bruce himself could not be caught. He was living a wild life among the lakes and hills; and Edward, who was an old man now, had been taken so ill at Carlisle, that he could not come on to keep his own strict rule among his men. All the winter he lay sick there; and in the spring he heard that Bruce, whom he thought quite crushed, had suddenly burst upon the English, defeated them, and was gathering strength every day.

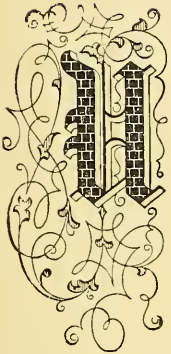
Edward put on his armor and set out for Scotland; but at Burgh-on-the-Sands his illness came on again, and he died there, at seventy years old.

He was buried in Westminster Abbey, under a great block of stone, and the inscription on it only says, "Edward I., 1308—The Hammer of the Scots—Keep Treaties." His good wife, Queen Eleanor, had died many years before him, and was also buried at Westminster. All the way from Grant-ham, in Lincolnshire—where she died—to London, Edward set up a beautiful stone cross wherever her body rested for the night—fifteen of them—but only three are left now.

CHAPTER XVI.

EDWARD II., OF CAERNARVON.

A.D. 1307-1327.



UNLIKE his father in everything was the young Edward, who was just come to manhood when he became king. Nay, he never did come to manhood in mind, for he was as silly and easily led as his grandfather, Henry III., had been. He had a friend—a gay, handsome, thoughtless, careless young man—named Piers Gaveston, who had often led him into mischief. His father had banished this dangerous companion, and forbidden, under pain of his heaviest displeasure, the two young men from ever meeting again; but the moment the old king was dead, Edward turned back from Scotland, where he was so much wanted, and sent for Piers Gaveston again. At the same time his bride arrived—Isabel, daughter to the King of France, a beautiful girl—and there was a splendid wedding feast; but the king and Gaveston were both so vain and conceited, that they cared more about their own beauty and fine dress than the young queen's, and she found herself quite neglected. The nobles, too, were angered at the airs that Gaveston gave himself; he not only dressed splendidly, had a huge train of servants, and managed the king as he pleased, but he was very insolent to them, and gave them nick-names. He called the king's cousin, the Earl of Lancaster, "the old hog;" the Earl of Pembroke, "Joseph, the Jew;" and the Earl of Warwick, "the black dog." Meantime, the king and he were wasting the treasury, and doing harm of all kinds, till the barons gathered together and forced the king to send his favorite into banishment. Gaveston went, but he soon came back again and joined the king, who was at last setting out for Scotland. The nobles, however, would not endure his return. They seized him, brought him to Warwick Castle, and there held a kind of Court, which could hardly be called of Justice, for they had no right at all to sentence him. He spoke them fair now, and begged hard for his life; but they could not forget the names he had called them, and he was beheaded on Blacklow Hill.

Edward was full of grief and anger for the cruel death of his friend; but he was forced to keep it out of sight, for all the barons were coming round him for the Scottish war. While he had been wasting his time, Robert Bruce had obtained every strong place in Scotland, except Stirling

Castle, and there the English governor had promised to yield, if succor did not come from England within a year and a day.

The year was almost over when Edward came into Scotland with a fine army of English, Welsh, and Gascons from Aquitaine; but Robert Bruce was a great and able general, and Edward was no general at all; so when the armies met at Bannockburn, under the walls of Stirling, the English were worse beaten than ever they had been anywhere else, except at Hastings. Edward was obliged to flee away to England, and though Bruce was never

owned by the English to be King of Scotland, there he really reigned, having driven every Englishman away, and taken all the towns and castles. Indeed, the English had grown so much afraid of the Scots, that a hundred would flee at sight of two.

The king comforted himself with a new friend—Hugh le Despencer—who, with his old father, had his own way, just like Gaveston. Again the barons rose, and required that they should be banished. They went, but the Earl of Lancaster carried his turbulence too far, and, when he heard that the father had come back, raised an army, and was even found to have asked Robert Bruce to help him against his own king. This made the other barons so angry that they joined the king against him, and he was made prisoner and put



A SCOTTISH CHIEF.

to death for making war on the king, and making friends with the enemies of the country.

Edward had his Le Despenchers back again, and very discontented the sight made the whole country—and especially the queen, whom he had always neglected, though she now had four children. He had never tried to gain her love, and she hated him more and more. There was some danger of a quarrel with her brother, the King of France, and she offered to go with her son Edward, now about fourteen, and settle it. But this was only an excuse. She went about to the princes abroad, telling them how ill she was used by her husband, and asking for help. A good many knights believed and pitied her, and came with her to England to help. All the Eng-

lish who hated the Le Despencers joined her, and she led the young prince against his father. Edward and his friends were hunted across into Wales; but they were tracked out one by one, and the Despencers were put to a cruel death, though Edward gave himself up in hopes of saving them.

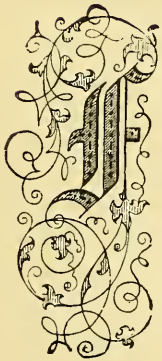
The queen and her friends made him own that he did not deserve to reign, and would give up the crown to his son. Then they kept him in prison, taking him from one castle to another, in great misery. The rude soldiers of his guard mocked him and crowned him with hay, and gave him dirty ditch water to shave with; and when they found he was too strong and healthy to die only of bad food and damp lodging, they murdered him one night in Berkeley Castle. He lies buried in Gloucester Cathedral, not far from that other foolish and unfortunate prince, Robert of Normandy. He had reigned twenty years, and was dethroned in 1327.

The queen then wanted to get rid of Edmund, Earl of Kent, the poor king's youngest brother. So a report was spread that Edward was alive, and Edmund was allowed to peep into a dark prison room, where he saw a man who he thought was his brother. He tried to stir up friends to set the king free; but this was called rebelling, and he was taken and beheaded at Winchester by a criminal condemned to die, for it was such a wicked sentence that nobody else could be found to carry it out.

CHAPTER XVII.

EDWARD III.

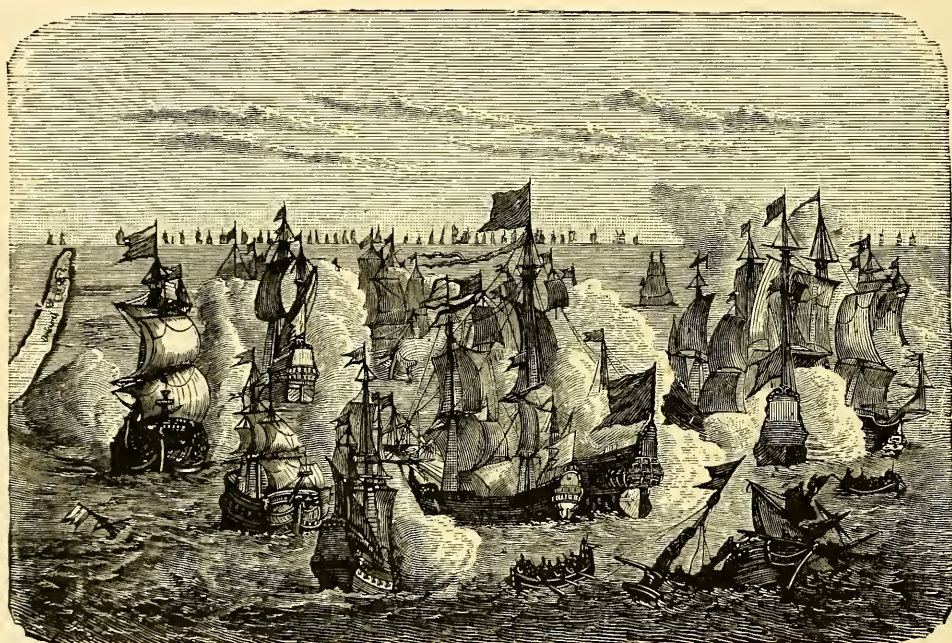
A.D. 1327-1377.



OR about three years, the cruel Queen Isabel and her friends managed all the country; but as soon as her son—Edward III., who had been crowned instead of his father—understood how wicked she had been, and was strong enough to deal with her party, he made them prisoners, put the worst of them to death, and kept the queen shut up in a castle as long as she lived. He had a very good queen of his own, named Philippa, who brought cloth-workers over from her own country, Hainault (now part of Belgium), to teach the English their trade, and thus began to render England the chief country in the world for wool and cloth.

Queen Isabel, Edward's mother, had, remember, been daughter of the

King of France. All her three brothers died without leaving a son, and their cousin, whose name was Philip, began to reign in their stead. Edward, however, fancied that the crown of France properly belonged to him, in right of his mother; but he did not stir about it at once, and, perhaps, never would have done so at all, but for two things. One was, that the King of France, Philip VI., had been so foolish as to fancy that one of his lords, named Robert of Artois, had been bewitching him—by sticking pins into a wax figure and roasting it before a fire. So this Robert was driven out of France, and, coming to England, stirred Edward up to go and overthrow Philip. The other was, that the English barons had grown so restless and



THE GREAT SEA-FIGHT OFF SLUYS.

troublesome, that they would not stay peacefully at home and mind their own estates;—but if they had not wars abroad, they always gave the king trouble at home; and Edward liked better that they should fight for him than against him. So he called himself King of France and England, and began a war which lasted—with short spaces of quiet—for full one hundred years, and only ended in the time of the great-grandchildren of the men who entered upon it. There was one great sea-fight off Sluys, when the king sat in his ship, in a black velvet dress, and gained a great victory; but it was a good while before there was any great battle by land—so long, that the king's eldest son, Edward Prince of Wales, was sixteen years old. He is generally called the Black Prince—no one quite knows why, for his hair, like that of all these old kings of ours, was quite light and his eyes were

blue. He was such a spirited young soldier, that when the French army under King Philip came in sight of the English one, near the village of Crecy, King Edward said he should have the honor of the day, and stood under a windmill on a hill watching the fight, while the prince led the English army. He gained a very great victory, and in the evening came and knelt before his father, saying the praise was not his own but the king's, who had ordered all so wisely. Afterward, while Philip had fled away, Edward besieged Calais, the town just opposite to Dover. The inhabitants were very brave, and held out for a long time; and while Edward was absent, the Scots under David, the son of Robert Bruce, came over the Border, and began to burn and plunder in Northumberland. However, Philippa could be brave in time of need. She did not send for her husband, but called an army together, and the Scots were so well beaten at Neville's Cross, that their king, David himself, was obliged to give himself up to an English squire. The man would not let the queen have his prisoner, but rode day and night to Dover, and then crossed to Calais to tell the king, who bade him put King David into Queen Philippa's keeping. She came herself to the camp, just as the brave men of Calais had been starved out; and Edward had said he would only consent not to burn the town down, if six of the chief townsmen would bring him the keys of the gates, kneeling, with sackcloth on, and halters round their necks, ready to be hung. Queen Philippa wept when she saw them, and begged that they might be spared; and when the king granted them to her she had them led away, and gave each a good dinner and a fresh suit of clothes. The king, however, turned all the French people out of Calais, and filled it with English, and it remained quite an English town for more than two hundred years.

King Philip VI. of France died, and his son John became king, while still the war went on. The Black Prince and John had a terrible battle at a place called Poitiers, and the English gained another great victory. King John and one of his sons were made prisoners; but when they were brought to the tent where the Black Prince was to sup, he made them sit down at the table before him, and waited on them as if they had been his guests instead of his prisoners. He did all he could to prevent captivity being a pain to them; and when he brought them to London, he gave John a tall white horse to ride, and only rode a small pony himself by his side. There were two kings prisoners in the Tower of London at once, and they were treated as if they were visitors and friends. John was allowed to go home, provided he would pay a ransom by degrees, as he could get the money together; and, in the meantime, his two eldest sons were to be kept at Calais in his stead. But they would not stay at Calais, and King John could not obtain the sum for his ransom; so, rather than cheat King Edward, he went back to his prison in England again. He died soon after; and his

son Charles was a cleverer and wiser man, who knew it was better not to fight battles with the English, but made a truce, or short peace.

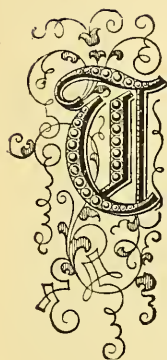
Prince Edward governed that part of the south of France that belonged to his father; but he went on a foolish expedition into Spain, to help a very bad king whom his subjects had driven out, and there caught an illness from which he never quite recovered. While he was ill, King Charles began the war again; and, though there was no battle, he tormented the English, and took the castles and towns they held. The Black Prince tried to fight, but he was too weak and ill to do much, and was obliged to go home, and leave the government to his brother John, Duke of Lancaster. He lived about six years after he came home, and then died, to the great sorrow of every one. His father, King Edward, was now too old and feeble to attend to the affairs of the country. Queen Philippa was dead, too, and as no one took proper care of the poor old king, he fell into the hands of bad servants, who made themselves rich and neglected him. When, at length, he lay dying, they stole the ring off his finger before he had breathed his last, and left him all alone, with the doors open, till a priest came by, and stayed and prayed by him till his last moment. He had reigned exactly fifty years. It is as well to learn and remember the names of his sons, as more will be related about some of them. They were Edward, Lionel, John, Edmund, and Thomas. Edward was Prince of Wales; Lionel, Duke of Clarence; John, Duke of Lancaster; Edmund, Duke of York; and Thomas, Duke of Gloucester. Edward and Lionel both died before their father. Edward had left a son named Richard; Lionel had left a daughter named Philippa.



CHAPTER XVIII.

RICHARD II.

A.D. 1377-1399.



THESE were not very good times in England. The new king, Richard, was only eleven years old, and his three uncles did not care much for his good or the good of the nation. There was not much fighting going on in France, but for the little there was, a great deal of money was wanting, and the great lords were apt to be very hard upon the poor people on their estates. They would not let them be taught to read; and if a poor man who belonged to an estate went away to a town, his lord could have him brought back to his old home. Any tax, too, fell more heavily on the poor than the rich. One tax, especially, called the poll-tax, which was made when Richard was sixteen, vexed them greatly. Every one above fifteen years old had to pay fourpence, and the collectors were often very rude and insolent. A man named Wat Tyler, in Kent, was so angry with a rude collector as to strike him dead. All the villagers came together with sticks, and scythes, and flails; and Wat Tyler told them they would all go to London, and tell the king how his poor commons were treated. More people and more joined them on the way, and an immense multitude of wild-looking men came pouring into London, where the Lord Mayor and Aldermen were taken by surprise, and could do nothing to stop them. They did not do much harm then; they lay on the grass all night round the Tower, and said they wanted to speak to the king. In the morning he came down to his barge, and meant to have spoken to them; but his people, seeing such a host of wild men, took fright, and carried him back again. He went out again the next day on horseback; but while he was speaking to some of them, the worst of them broke into the Tower, where they seized Archbishop Simon of Canterbury, and fancying he was one of the king's bad advisers, they cut off his head. Richard had to sleep in the house called the Royal Wardrobe that night, but he went out again on horseback among the mob, and began trying to understand what they wanted. Wat Tyler, while talking, grew violent, forgot to whom he was speaking, and laid his hand on the king's bridle, as if to threaten or take him prisoner. Upon this, the Lord Mayor, with his mace—the large crowned staff that is carried before him—dealt the man such a blow that he

fell from his horse, and an attendant thrust him through with a sword. The people wavered, and seemed not to know what to do: and the young king, with great readiness, rode forward and said—"Good fellows, have ye lost your leader? This fellow was but a traitor; I am your king, and will be your captain and guide." Then he rode at their head out into the fields, and the gentlemen, who had mustered their men by this time, were able to get between them and the city. The people of each county were desired to state their grievances; the king engaged to do what he could for them, and they went home.

Richard seems to have really wished to take away some of the laws that



DEATH OF WAT TYLER.

were so hard upon them, but his lords would not let him, and he had as yet very little power—being only a boy—and by the time he grew up his head was full of vanity and folly. He was very handsome, and he cared more for fine clothes and amusements than for business; and his youngest uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, did all he could to keep him back, and hinder him from taking his affairs into his own hands. Not till he was twenty-four did Richard begin to govern for himself; and then the Duke of Gloucester was always grumbling and setting the people to grumble, because the king chose to have peace with France. Duke Thomas used to lament over the glories

of the battles of Edward III., and tell the people they had taxes to pay to keep the king in ermine robes, and rings, and jewels, and to let him give feasts and tilting-matches—when the knights, in beautiful, gorgeous armor, rode against one another in sham fight, and the king and ladies looked on and gave the prize.

Now, Richard knew very well that all this did not cost half so much as his grandfather's wars, and he said it did not signify to the people what he wore, or how he amused himself, as long as he did not tax them and take their lambs and sheaves to pay for it. But the people would not believe him, and Gloucester was always stirring them up against him, and interfering with him in council. At last, Richard went as if on a visit to his uncle at Pleshy Castle, and there, in his own presence, caused him to be seized and sent off to Calais. In a few days' time Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, was dead; and to this day nobody knows whether his grief and rage brought on a fit, or if he was put to death. It is certain, at least, that Richard's other two uncles do not seem to have treated the king as if he had been to blame. The elder of these uncles, the Duke of Lancaster, was called John of Gaunt—because he had been born at Ghent, a town in Flanders. He was becoming an old man, and only tried to help the king and keep things quiet; but Henry, his eldest son, was a fine high-spirited young man—a favorite with everybody, and was always putting himself forward—and the king was very much afraid of him.

One day, when Parliament met, the king stood up, and commanded Henry of Lancaster to tell all those present what the Duke of Norfolk had said when they were riding together. Henry gave in a written paper, saying that the duke had told him that they should all be ruined, like the Duke of Gloucester, and that the king would find some way to destroy them. Norfolk angrily sprang up, and declared he had said no such thing. In those days, when no one could tell which spoke truth, the two parties often would offer to fight, and it was believed that God would show the right, by giving the victory to the sincere one. So Henry and Norfolk were to fight; but just as they were mounted on their horses, with their lances in their hands, the king threw down his staff before them, stopped the combat, and sentenced Norfolk to be banished from England for life, and Henry for ten years.

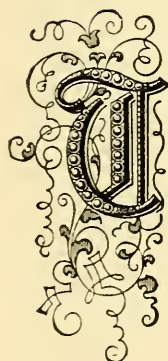
Not long after Henry had gone, his old father—John of Gaunt—died, and the king kept all his great dukedom of Lancaster. Henry would not bear this, and knew that many people at home thought it very unfair; so he came to England, and as soon as he landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, people flocked to him so eagerly, that he began to think he could do more than make himself Duke of Lancaster. King Richard was in Ireland, where his cousin, the governor—Roger Mortimer—had been killed by the wild

Irish. He came home in haste on hearing of Henry's arrival, but everybody turned against him: and the Earl of Northumberland, whom he had chiefly trusted, made him prisoner and carried him to Henry. He was taken to London, and there set before Parliament, to confess that he had ruled so ill that he was unworthy to reign, and gave up the crown to his dear cousin Henry of Lancaster, in the year 1399. Then he was sent away to Pontefract Castle, and what happened to him there nobody knows, but he never came out of it alive.

CHAPTER XIX.

HENRY IV.

A.D. 1399-1413.



THE English people had often chosen their king out of the Royal Family in old times, but from John to Richard II. he had always been the son and heir of the last king. Now, though poor Richard had no child, Henry of Lancaster was not the next of kin to him, for Lionel, Duke of Clarence, had come between the Black Prince and John of Gaunt; and his great-grandson, Edmund Mortimer, was thought by many to have a better right to be king than Henry. Besides, people did not know whether Richard was alive, and they thought him hardly used, and wanted to set him free. So Henry had a very uneasy time. Every one had been fond of him when he was a bright, friendly, free-spoken noble, and he had thought that he would be a good king and much loved; but he had gained the crown in an evil way, and it never gave him any peace or joy. The Welsh, who always had loved Richard, took up arms for him, and the Earl of Northumberland, who had betrayed Richard, expected a great deal too much from Henry. The earl had a brave son—Henry Percy—who was so fiery and eager that he was commonly called Hotspur. He was set to fight with the Welsh: and with the king's son, Henry, Prince of Wales—a brave boy of fifteen or sixteen—under his charge, to teach him the art of war; and they used to climb the mountains and sleep in tents together as good friends.

But the Scots made an attack on England. Henry Percy went north to fight with them, and beat them in a great battle, making many prisoners. The king sent to ask to have the prisoners sent to London, and this made

the proud Percy so angry that he gave up the cause of King Henry, and went off to Wales, taking his prisoners with him; and there—being by this time nearly sure that poor Richard must be dead—he joined the Welsh in choosing, as the only right king of England, young Edmund Mortimer. Henry IV. and his sons gathered an army easily—for the Welsh were so savage and cruel, that the English were sure to fight against them if they broke into England. The battle was fought near Shrewsbury. It was a very fierce one, and in it Hotspur was killed, the Welsh put to flight, and the Prince of Wales fought so well, that every one saw he was likely to be a brave, warlike king, like Edward I., or Edward III.

The troubles were not over, however, for the Earl of Northumberland himself, and Archbishop Scrope of York, took up arms against the king; but they were put down without a battle. The earl fled and hid himself, but the archbishop was taken and beheaded—the first bishop whom a king of England had ever put to death. The Welsh went on plundering and doing harm, and Prince Henry had to be constantly on the watch against them; and, in fact, there never was a reign so full of plots and conspiracies. The king never knew whom to trust: one friend after another turned against him, and he became soured and wretched; he was worn out with disappointment and guarding against every one, and at last he grew even suspicious of his brave son Henry, because he was so bright and bold, and was so much loved. The prince was ordered home from Wales, and obliged to live at Windsor, with nothing to do, while his younger brothers were put before him and trusted by their father—one of them even sent to command the army in France. But happily the four brothers—Henry, Thomas, John, and Humfrey—all loved each other so well that nothing could make them jealous or at enmity with one another. At Windsor, too, the king kept young Edmund Mortimer—whom the Welsh had tried to make king,—and also the young Prince of Scotland, whom an English ship had caught as he was sailing for France to be educated. It was very dishonorable of the king to have taken him; but he was brought up with the young English princes, and they all led a happy life together.

There are stories told of Henry—Prince Hal, as he was called—leading a wild, merry life, as a sort of madcap; playing at being a robber, and breaking into the wagons that were bringing treasure for his father, and then giving the money back again. Also, there is a story that, when one of his friends was taken before the Lord Chief Justice, he went and ordered him to be released, and that when the justice refused he drew his sword, upon which the justice sent him to prison; and he went quietly, knowing it was right. The king is said to have declared himself happy to have a judge who maintained the law so well, and a son who would submit to it; but there does not seem to be good reason for believing the story; and it seems

clear that young Henry, if he was full of fun and frolic, took care never to do anything really wrong.

The king was an old man before his time. He was always ill, and often had fits, and one of these came on when he was in Westminster Abbey. He was taken to the room called the Jerusalem chamber, and Henry watched him there. Another of the stories is that the king lay as if he were dead, and the prince took the crown that was by his side and carried it away. When the king revived, Henry brought it back, with many excuses. "Ah, fair

son," said the king, "what right have you to the crown? you know your father had none."

"Sir," said Henry, "with your sword you took it, and with my sword I will keep it."

"May God have mercy on my soul," said the king.

We cannot be quite certain about the truth of this conversation, for many people will write down stories they have heard, without making sure of them. One thing we are certain of which Henry told his son, which seems less like repentance. It was that, unless he made war in France, his lords would never let him be quiet on his throne in England; and this young Henry was quite ready to believe. There had never been a real peace



PRINCE HENRY OFFERS HIS LIFE WHEN HIS FATHER DOUBTS HIS LOYALTY UPON RETURNING THE CROWN.

between France and England since Edward III. had begun the war—only truces, which are short rests in the middle of a great war—and the English were eager to begin again; for people seldom thought then of the misery that comes of a great war, but only of the honor and glory that were to be gained, of making prisoners and getting ransoms from them.

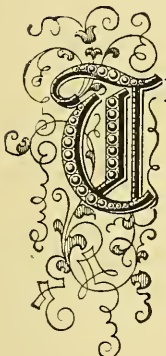
So Henry IV. died, after having made his own life very miserable by taking the crown unjustly, and, as you will see, leaving a great deal of harm still to come to the whole country, as well as to France.

He died in the year 1413. His family is called the House of Lancaster, because his father had been Duke of Lancaster. You will be amused to hear that Richard Whittington really lived in his time. We cannot answer for his cat, but he was really Lord Mayor of London, and supplied the wardrobe of King Henry's daughter, when she married the King of Denmark.

CHAPTER XX.

HENRY V., OF MONMOUTH.

A.D. 1413-1423.



THE young King Henry was full of high, good thoughts. He was most devout in going to church, tried to make good bishops, gave freely to the poor, and was so kindly, and hearty, and merry in all his words and ways, that every one loved him. Still, he thought it was his duty to go and make war in France. He had been taught to believe the kingdom belonged to him, and it was in so wretched a state that he thought he could do it good. The poor king, Charles VI., was mad, and had a wicked wife besides; and his sons, and uncles, and cousins were always fighting, till the streets of Paris often ran red with blood, and the whole country was miserable. Henry hoped to set all in order for them, and, gathering an army together, crossed to Normandy. He called on the people to own him as their true king, and never let any harm be done to them, for he hung any soldier who was caught stealing, or misusing any one. He took the town of Harfleur, on the coast of Normandy, but not till after a long siege, when his camp was in so wet a place that there was much illness among his men. The store of food was nearly used up, and he was obliged to march his troops across to Calais, which belonged to England, to get some more. But on the way the French army came up to meet him—a very grand, splendid-looking army, commanded by the king's eldest son, the dauphin. Just as the English king's eldest son was always Prince of Wales, the French king's eldest son was always called Dauphin of Vienne, because Vienne, the county that belonged to him, had a dolphin on its shield. The French army was very large—quite twice the number of the English—but, though Henry's men were weary and half-starved, and many of them sick, they were not afraid, but believed their king when he told them that there were enough Frenchmen to kill, enough

to run away, and enough to make prisoners. At night, however, the English had solemn prayers, and made themselves ready, and the king walked from tent to tent to see that each man was in his place; while, on the other hand, the French were feasting and revelling, and settling what they would do to the English when they had made them prisoners. They were close to a little village which the English called Agincourt, and though that is not quite its right name, the battle has been called after it ever since. The French, owing to the quarrelsome state of the country, had no order or obedience among them. Nobody would obey any other; and when their own archers were in the way, the horsemen began cutting them down as if they were the enemy. Some fought bravely, but it was of little use; and by night all the French were routed, and King Henry's banner waving in victory over the field. He went back to England in great glory, and all the aldermen of London came out to meet him in red gowns and gold chains, and among them was Sir Richard Whittington, the great silk mercer.

Henry was so modest that he would not allow the helmet he had worn at Agincourt, all knocked about with terrible blows, to be carried before him when he rode into London, and he went straight to church, to give thanks to God for his victory. He soon went back to France, and went on conquering it till the queen came to an agreement with him that he should marry her daughter Catherine, and that, though poor, crazy Charles VI. should reign to the end of his life, when he died Henry and Catherine should be king and queen of France. So Henry and Catherine were married, and he took her home to England with great joy and pomp, leaving his brother Thomas, Duke of Clarence, to take care of his army in France. For, of course, though the queen had made this treaty for her mad husband, most brave, honest Frenchmen could not but feel it a wicked and unfair thing to give the kingdom away from her son, the Dauphin Charles. He was not a good man, and had consented to the murder of his cousin, the Duke of Burgundy, and this had turned some against him; but still he was badly treated, and the bravest Frenchmen could not bear to see their country given up to the English. So, though he took no trouble to fight for himself, they fought for him, and got some Scots to help them; and by and by news came to Henry that his army had been beaten and his brother killed.

He came back again in haste to France, and his presence made everything go well again; but all the winter he was besieging the town of Meaux, where there was a very cruel robber, who made all the roads to Paris unsafe, and by the time he had taken it his health was much injured. His queen came to him, and they kept a very grand court at Paris, at Whitsuntide; but soon after, when Henry set out to join his army, he found himself so ill and weak that he was obliged to turn back to the Castle of Vincennes, where he grew much worse. He called for all his friends, and



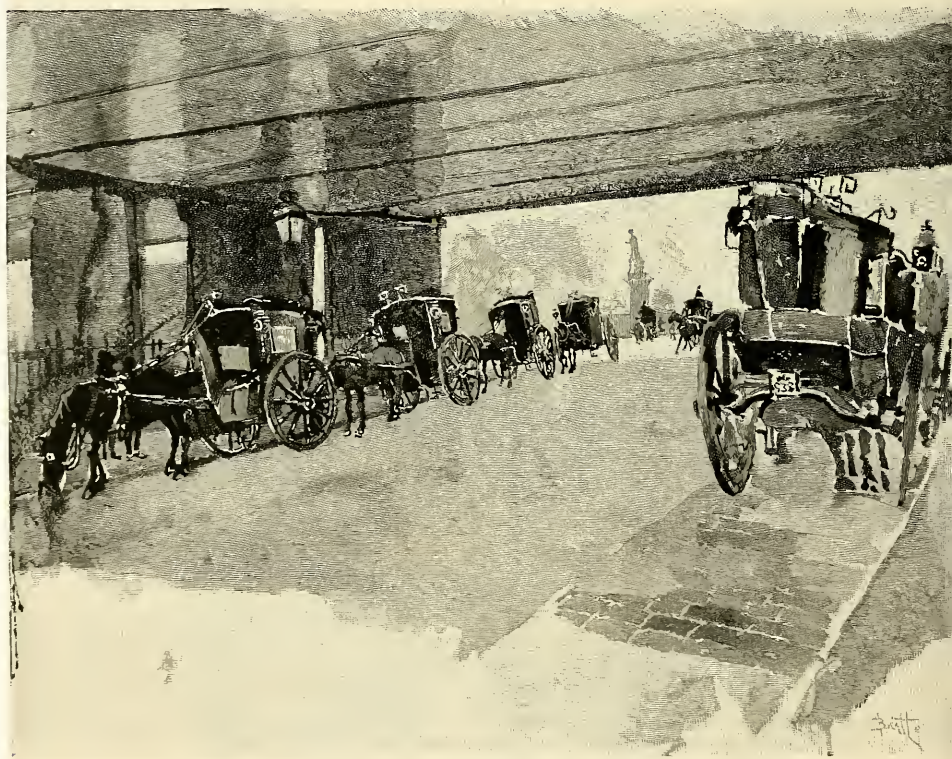
CHARING CROSS STATION.

part has remained memorable to me; but I am happy to say that I can easily evoke others.

II.

It is no doubt not the taste of every one, but for the real London-lover the mere immensity of the place is a large part of its merit. A small London would be an abomination, and fortunately is an impossibility, as the idea and the name are beyond everything an expression of extent and number. Practically, of course, one lives in a quarter, in a plot; but in imagination, and by a constant mental act of refer-

ence to its activity are, fortunately for the common advantage, solicited, at any moment, by a thousand different objects. If the place is large, everything it contains is certainly not so; but this may at least be said, that if small things are noticed and talked of, they are not noticed and talked of long. There are too many interesting small or great; and each day, as it arrives, leads its children, like a kind of mendicant mother, by the hand. Therefore perhaps the most general characteristic is the absence of insistence. Habits and inclinations flourish and fall, but that is never one of them. The spirit of the great city is not analytic, and, as the



A CAB STAND.

ce, the sympathizing resident inhabits the role—and it is only of him that I deem it worth while to speak. He fancies himself, as they say, for being a particle in so unequalled aggregation; and its immeasurable circumference, even though unvisited and lost in the jostle, gives him a sense of social and intellectual elbow-room. There is a luxury in the knowledge that he may come and go without being noticed, even when his comings and goings have no nefarious end. I do not mean by

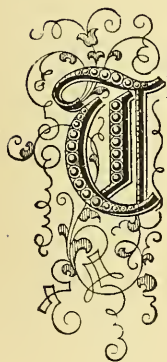
come up, subjects do not receive at its hands a treatment that in some other communities would be deemed earnest or exhaustive. There are few—of which London disposes with assurance begotten of its large experience—to which a good deal does not remain to be more patiently and tenderly considered elsewhere. It takes a very great affair, like the Irish question or a divorce case lasting many days, to be fully threshed out. (The London mind, when it aspires to show what it really

begged them to be faithful to his little baby son, whom he had never even seen; and he spoke especially to his brother John, Duke of Bedford, to whom he left the charge of all he had gained. He had tried to be a good man, and though his attack on France was really wrong, and caused great misery, he had meant to do right. So he was not afraid to face death, and he died when only thirty-four years old, while he was listening to the fifty-first Psalm. Everybody grieved for him—even the French—and nobody had ever been so good and dutiful to poor old King Charles, who sat in a corner lamenting for his good son Henry, and wasting away till he died, only three weeks later, so that he was buried the same day, at St. Denys Abbey, near Paris, as Henry was buried at Westminster Abbey, near London.

CHAPTER XXI.

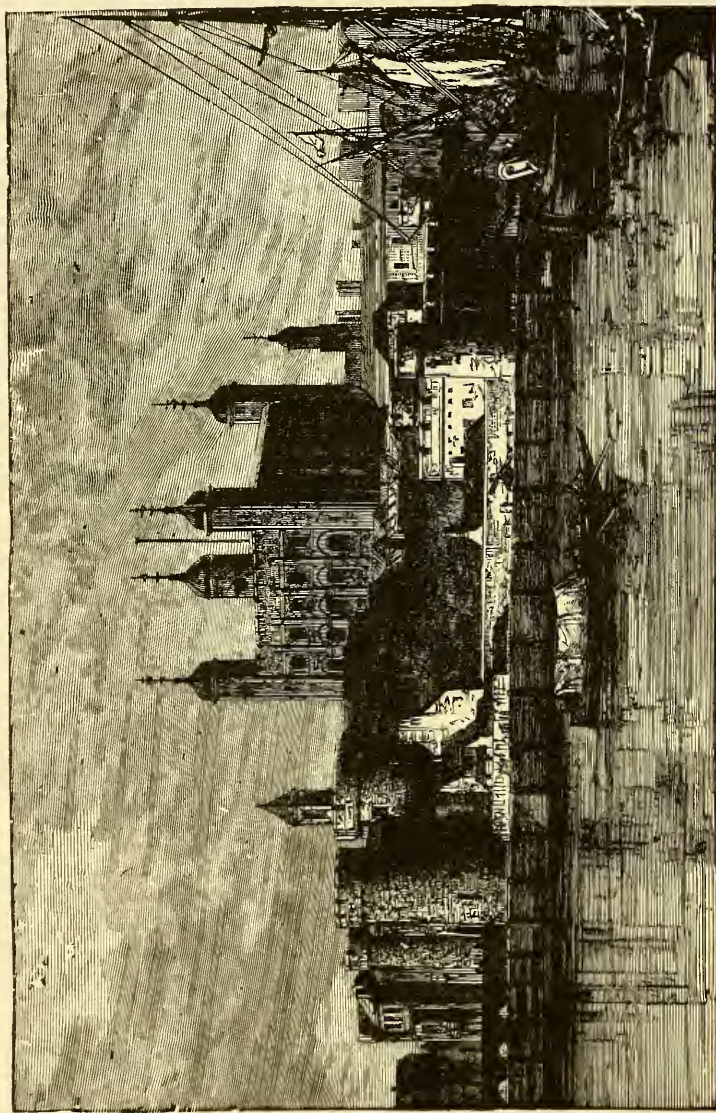
HENRY VI., OF WINDSOR.

A.D. 1423–1461.



THE poor little baby, Henry VI., was but nine months old when—over the grave of his father in England, and his grandfather in France—he was proclaimed King of France and England. The crown of England was held over his head, and his lords made their oaths to him; and when he was nine years old he was sent to Paris, and there crowned King of France. He was a very good, little, gentle boy, as meek and obedient as possible; but his friends, who knew that a king must be brave, strong, and firm for his people's sake, began to be afraid that nothing would ever make him manly. The war in France went on all the time: the Duke of Bedford keeping the north and the old lands in the south-west for little Henry, and the French doing their best for their rightful king—though he was so lazy and fond of pleasure that he let them do it all alone. Yet a wonderful thing happened in his favor. The English were besieging Orleans, when a young village girl, named Joan of Arc, came to King Charles and told him that she had had a commission from Heaven to save Orleans, and to lead him to Rheims, where French kings were always crowned. And she did! She always acted as one led by Heaven. She never let anything wrong be done in her sight—no bad words spoken, no savage deeds done; and she never fought herself, only led the French soldiers. The English thought her a witch, and fled like sheep whenever they

saw her; and the French common men were always brave with her to lead them. And so she really saved Orleans, and brought the king to be crowned at Rheims. But neither Charles nor his selfish bad nobles liked her. She was too good for them; and so, though they would not let her go home to



THE TOWER OF LONDON.

her village as she wished, they gave her no proper help; and once, when there was a fight going on outside the walls of a town, the French all ran away and left her outside, where she was taken by the English. And then, we are sorry to say, the court that sat to judge her—some English and some French of the English party—sentenced her to be burnt to death



DEJAROCHE p^r

STRUNZ sc.

JOAN OF ARC.

Selmar Hess, Publisher New York

in the market-place at Rouen as a witch, and her own king never tried to save her.

But the spirit she had stirred up never died away. The French went on winning back more and more; and there were so many quarrels among the English that they had little chance of keeping anything. The king's youngest uncle, Humfrey, Duke of Gloucester, was always disputing with the Beaufort family. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster—father to Henry IV.—had, late in life, married a person of low birth, and her children were called Beaufort, after the castle where they were born—not Plantagenet—and were hardly reckoned as princes by other people; but they were very proud, and thought themselves equal to anybody. The good Duke of Bedford died quite worn out with trying to keep the peace among them, and to get proper help from England to save the lands his brother had won in France.

All this time, the king liked the Beauforts much better than Duke Humfrey, and he followed their advice, and that of their friend, the Earl of Suffolk, in marrying Margaret of Anjou—the daughter of a French prince, who had a right to a great part of the lands the English held. All these were given back to her father, and this made the Duke of Gloucester and all the English more angry, and they hated the young queen as the cause. She was as bold and high-spirited as the king was gentle and meek. He loved nothing so well as praying, praising God, and reading; and he did one great thing for the country—which did more for it than all the fighting kings had done—he founded Eton College, close to Windsor Castle; and there many of the best clergymen, soldiers, and statesmen, have had their education. But while he was happy over rules for his scholars, and in plans for the beautiful chapel, the queen was eagerly taking part in the quarrels, and the nation hated her the more for interfering. And very strangely, Humfrey, Duke of Gloucester, was, at the meeting of Parliament, accused of high treason and sent to prison, where, in a few days, he was found dead in his bed—just like his great-uncle, Thomas, Duke of Gloucester; nor does any one understand the mystery in one case better than in the other, except that we are more sure that gentle Henry VI. had nothing to do with it than we can be of Richard II.

These were very bad times. There was a rising like Wat Tyler's, under a man named Jack Cade, who held London for two or three days before he was put down; and, almost at the same time, the queen's first English friend, Suffolk, was exiled by her enemies, and taken at sea and murdered by some sailors. Moreover, the last of the brave old friends of Henry V. was killed in France, while trying to save the remains of the old duchy of Aquitaine, which had belonged to the English kings ever since Henry II. married Queen Eleanor. That was the end of the hundred years' war, for

peace was made at last, and England kept nothing in France but the one city of Calais.

Still things were growing worse. Duke Humfrey left no children, and as time went on and the king had none, the question was who should reign. If the Beauforts were to be counted as princes, they came next; but every one hated them, so that people recollected that Henry IV. had thrust aside the young Edmund Mortimer, grandson to Lionel, who had been next eldest to the Black Prince. Edmund was dead, but his sister Anne had married a son of the Duke of York, youngest son of Edward III.; and her son Richard, Duke of York, could not help feeling that he had a much better right to be king than any Beaufort. There was a great English noble named Richard Nevil, Earl of Warwick, who liked to manage everything—just the sort of baron that was always mischievous at home, if not fighting in France—and he took up York's cause hotly. York's friends used to wear white roses, Beaufort's friends red roses, and the two parties kept on getting more bitter; but as no one wished any ill to gentle King Henry—who, to make matters worse, sometimes had fits of madness, like his poor grandfather in France—they would hardly have fought it out in his lifetime, if he had not at last had a little son, who was born while he was so mad that he did not know of it. Then, when York found it was of no use to wait, he began to make war, backed up by Warwick, and, after much fighting, they made the king prisoner, and forced him to make an agreement that he should reign as long as he lived, but that after that Richard of York should be king, and his son Edward be only Duke of Lancaster. This made the queen furiously angry. She would not give up her son's rights, and she gathered a great army, with which she came suddenly on the Duke of York near Wakefield, and destroyed nearly his whole army. He was killed in the battle; and his second son, Edmund, was met on Wakefield bridge and stabbed by Lord Clifford; and Margaret had their heads set up over the gates of York, while she went on to London to free her husband.

But Edward, York's eldest son, was a better captain than he, and far fiercer and more cruel. He made the war much more savage than it had been before; and, after beating the queen's friends at Mortimer's Cross, he hurried on to London, where the people—who had always been very fond of his father, and hated Queen Margaret—greeted him gladly. He was handsome and stately looking; and though he was really cruel when offended, had easy, good-natured manners, and every one in London was delighted to receive him and own him as king. But Henry and Margaret were in the north with many friends, and he followed them thither to Towton Moor, where, in a snow-storm, began the most cruel and savage battle of all the war. Edward gained the victory, and nobody was spared, or made prisoner—all were killed who could not flee. Poor Henry was hidden among his



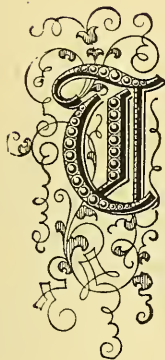
EDWARD IV.

friends, and Margaret went to seek help in Scotland and abroad, taking her son with her. Once she brought another army and fought at Hexham, but she was beaten again; and before long King Henry was discovered by his enemies, carried to London, and shut up a prisoner in the Tower. His reign is reckoned to have ended in 1461.

CHAPTER XXII.

EDWARD IV.

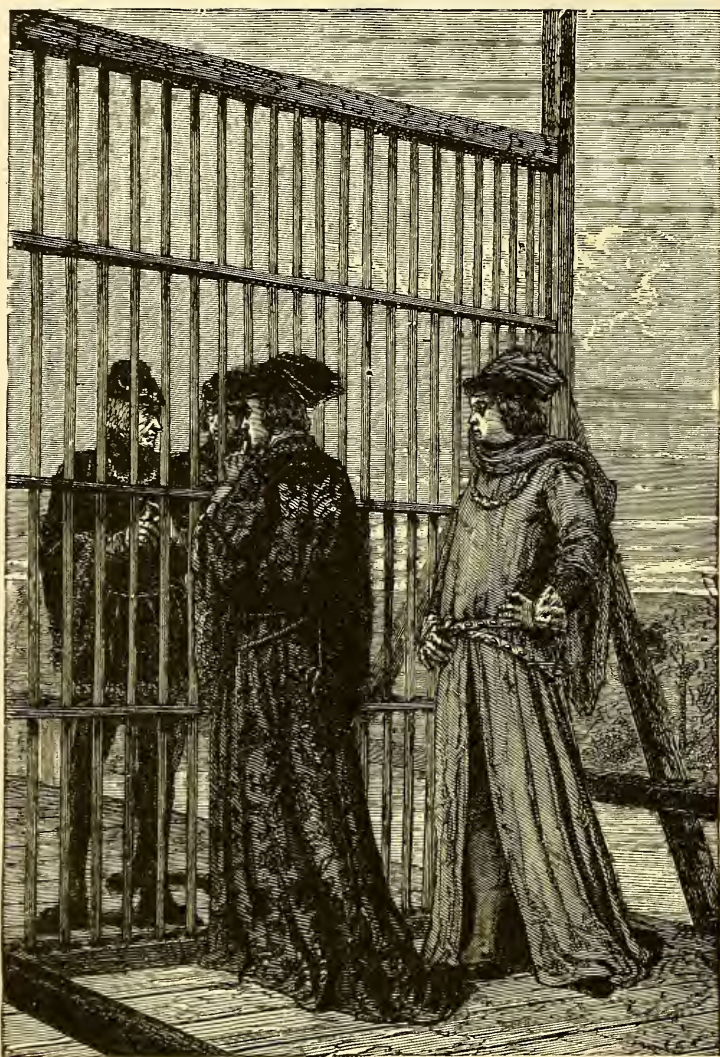
A.D. 1461-1483.



THOUGH Edward IV. was made king, the wars of the Red and White Roses were not over yet. Queen Margaret and her friends were always trying to get help for poor King Henry. Edward had been so base and mean as to have him led into London, with his feet tied together under his horse, while men struck him on the face, and cried out, "Behold the traitor!" But Henry was meek, patient, and gentle throughout; and, when shut up in the Tower, spent his time in reading and praying, or playing with his little dog.

Queen Margaret and her son Edward were living with her father in France, and she was always trying to have her husband set free and brought back to his throne. In the meantime, all England was exceedingly surprised to find that Edward IV. had been secretly married to a beautiful lady named Elizabeth Woodville—Lady Grey. Her first husband had been killed fighting for Henry, and she had stood under an oak-tree, when King Edward was passing, to entreat that his lands might not be taken from her little boys. The king fell in love with her and married her, but for a long time he was afraid to tell the Earl of Warwick; and when he did, Warwick was greatly offended—and all the more because Elizabeth's relations were proud and gay in their dress, and tried to set themselves above all the old nobles. Warwick himself had no son, but he had two daughters, whom he meant to marry to the king's two brothers—George, Duke of Clarence, and Richard, Duke of Gloucester. Edward thought this would make Warwick too powerful, and though he could not prevent George from marrying Isabel Nevil, the eldest daughter, the discontent grew so strong that Warwick persuaded George to fly with him, turn against his own brother, and offer Queen Margaret their help! No wonder Margaret did not trust them,

and was very hard to persuade that Warwick could mean well by her; but at last she consented, and gave her son Edward—a fine lad of sixteen—to marry his daughter, Anne Nevil; after which, Warwick—whom men began to call the king-maker—went back to England with Clarence, to raise their



LOUIS XI. PERSUADES EDWARD IV. TO RETURN HOME UPON PAYMENT OF A SUM OF MONEY.
(THEY CONVERSED THROUGH A FENCE, BEING AFRAID OF MEETING WITHOUT A BARRIER
BETWEEN THEM.)

men, while she was to follow with her son and his young wife. Warwick came so suddenly that he took the Yorkists at unawares. Edward had to flee for his life to Flanders, leaving his wife and her babies to take shelter in Westminster Abbey—since no one durst take any one out of a holy place—and poor Henry was taken out of prison and set on the throne again. However, Edward soon got help in Flanders, where his sister was married

LONDON.



TRAFALGAR SQUARE.

al conditions. The place is the beating heart of the great West End, yet its main features are a shabby, stuccoed hospital, the low park-ettes, in their neat but unimposing frame, the drawing-room windows of Apsley House and the commonplace residential façades on the little terrace beside it; to which must be added, of course, the only item in the whole prospect that is in the least monumental—the arch spanning the private road which skirts the gardens of Buckingham Palace. This structure is now bereaved of the rueful effigy which used to surmount it,—the Iron Duke in the guise of a tin soldier,—and has not been enriched by the transaction as much as might have been expected. There is a fine view of Piccadilly and Knightsbridge, and of the noble mansions, as the house-agents call them, of Grosvenor Place, together with a sense of generous space beyond the vulgar little railing of the Green Park; but except for the impression

traffic, with the steady policeman marking the rhythm, which roll together and apart for many hours. Then the great dim city becomes bright and kind, the pall of smoke turns into a veil of haze, carelessly worn, the air is colored and almost scented, by the presence of the biggest society in the world, and most of the things that meet the eye—or perhaps I should say more of them, for the most, in London, is without doubt ever the realm of the dingy—present themselves as “well appointed.” Everything shines more or less, from the window-panes to the dog-collars. So it all looks, with its myriads of variations and qualifications, to one who surveys it over the apron of a hansom, while the vehicle of vantage, better than any box at the opera, spurts and slackens with the current.

It is not in a hansom, however, that we have figured our punctual young man, whom we must not desert, as he fares to the south-east and who has only to cross Hyde Park Corner

LONDON.

ere a government clerk living, in snug domestic conditions, in Pembridge Villas,—let me suppose,—and having my matutinal desk at Westminster. I should turn into Kensington Gardens at their north-west limit, and I should have my choice of a hundred pleasant paths to the gates of Hyde Park. In Hyde Park I could follow the waterside, or the Row, or any other fancy of the occasion; liking best perhaps, after all, the Row in its morning mood, with the mist hanging over the dark red course, and the scattered early riders taking an identity as the soundless gallop brings them nearer. I am free to admit that in the season, at the conventional hours, the Row becomes a wearisome

empty benches and chairs, its occasional orange peel, its mounted policemen patrolling at intervals like expectant supernumeraries, it offers a considerable analogy to a circus with its lamps out. The sky that bends over it is frequently not a bad imitation of the dingy sky of such an establishment. The ghosts of the cavalcades seem to haunt the foggy arena, somehow they are better company than the mashers and elongated beauties of current fashion. It is not without interest to remember that most of the salient figures of English society during the present century—and English society means, or rather has hitherto meant—in a large degree English history—have bobbed



THE TOWERS OF WESTMINSTER.

to the Duke of Burgundy. He came back again, gathered his friends, and sent messages to his brother Clarence that he would forgive him if he would desert the earl. No one ever had less faith or honor than George of Clarence. He did desert Warwick, just as the battle of Barnet Heath was beginning; and Warwick's king-making all ended, for he was killed, with his brother and many others, in the battle.

And this was the first news that met Margaret when, after being long hindered by foul weather, she landed at Plymouth. She would have done more wisely to have gone back, but her son Edward longed to strike a blow for his inheritance, and they had friends in Wales whom they hoped to meet. So they made their way into Gloucestershire; but there King Edward, with both his brothers, came down upon them at Tewkesbury, and there their army was routed, and the young prince taken and killed—some say by the king himself and his brothers. Poor broken-hearted Queen Margaret was made prisoner too, and carried to the Tower, where she arrived a day or two after the meek and crazed captive, Henry VI., had been slain, that there might be no more risings in his name. And so ended the long war of York and Lancaster—though not in peace or joy to the savage, faithless family who had conquered.

Edward was merry and good-natured when not angered, and had quite sense and ability enough to have been a very good king, if he had not been lazy, selfish, and full of vices. He actually set out to conquer France, and then let himself be persuaded over and paid off by the cunning King of France, and went home again, a laughing-stock to everybody. As to George, the king had never trusted him since his shameful behavior when Warwick rebelled; besides, he was always abusing the queen's relations, and Richard was always telling the king of all the bad and foolish things he did or said. At last there was a great outbreak of anger, and the king ordered the Duke of Clarence to be imprisoned in the Tower; and there, before long, he too was killed. The saying was that he was drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine; but this is not at all likely to be true. He left two little children, a boy and a girl.

So much cruel slaughter had taken place, that most of the noble families in England had lost many sons, and a great deal of their wealth, and none of them ever became again so mighty as the king-maker had been. His daughter, Anne, the wife of poor Edward of Lancaster, was found by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, hiding as a cook-maid in London, and she was persuaded to marry him—as, indeed, she had always been intended for him. He was a little, thin, slight man, with one shoulder higher than the other, and keen, cunning dark eyes; and as the king was very tall, with a handsome, blue-eyed, fair face, people laughed at the contrast, called Gloucester Richard Crookback, and were very much afraid of him.

It was in this reign that books began to be printed in England instead of written. Printing had been found out in Germany a little before, and books had been shown to Henry VI., but the troubles of his time kept him from attending to them. Now, however, Edward's sister, the Duchess of Burgundy, much encouraged a printer named Caxton, whose books she sent her brother, and other presses were set up in London. Another great change had now come in. Long ago, in the time of Henry III., a monk named Roger Bacon had made gunpowder; but nobody used it much until, in the reign of Edward III., it was found out how cannon might be fired with it; and some say it was first used in the battle of Crecy. But it was not till the reign of Edward IV. that smaller guns, such as each soldier could carry one of for himself, were invented—harquebuses, as they were called;—and after this the whole way of fighting was gradually altered. Printing and gunpowder both made very great changes in everything, though not all at once.

King Edward did not live to see the changes. He had hurt his health with his revellings and amusements, and died quite in middle age, in the year 1483: seeing, perhaps, at last, how much better a king he might have been.

CHAPTER XXIII.

EDWARD V.

A.D. 1483.



EDWARD IV. left several daughters and two sons—Edward, Prince of Wales, who was fourteen years old, and Richard, Duke of York, who was eleven. Edward was at Ludlow Castle—where the princes of Wales were always brought up—with his mother's brother, Lord Rivers; his half-brother, Richard Grey; and other gentlemen. When the tidings came of his father's death, they set out to bring him to London to be crowned king.

But, in the meantime, the Duke of Gloucester and several of the noblemen, especially the Duke of Buckingham, agreed that it was unbearable that the queen and her brothers should go on having all the power, as they had done in Edward's time. Till the king was old enough to govern, his father's brother, the Duke of Gloucester, was the proper person to rule for him, and they would soon put an end to the Woodvilles. The long wars had made everybody cruel and regardless of the laws, so that

no one made much objection when Gloucester and Buckingham met the king and took him from his uncle and half-brother, who were sent off to Pontefract Castle, and in a short time their heads were cut off there. Another of the late king's friends was Lord Hastings; and as he sat at the council table in the Tower of London, with the other lords, Richard came in, and, showing his own lean, shrunken arm, declared that Lord Hastings had bewitched him, and made it so. The other lords began to say that *if* he had done so it was horrible. But Richard would listen to no *ifs*, and said he would not dine till Hastings's head was off. And his cruel word was done.

The queen saw that harm was intended, and went with all her other children to her former refuge in the sanctuary at Westminster; nor would she leave it when her son Edward rode in state into London and was taken to the Tower, which was then a palace as well as a prison.

The Duke of Gloucester and the Council said that this pretence at fear was very foolish, and was only intended to do them harm, and that the little Duke of York ought to be with his brother; and they sent the Archbishop of Canterbury to desire her to give the boy up. He found the queen sitting desolate, with all her long light hair streaming about her, and her children round her; and he spoke kindly to her at first, and tried to persuade her of what he really believed himself—that it was all her foolish fears and fancies that the Duke of Gloucester could mean any ill to his little nephew, and that the two brothers ought to be together in his keeping.

Elizabeth cried, and said that the boys were better apart, for they quarrelled when they were together, and that she could not give up little Richard. In truth, she guessed that their uncle wanted to get rid of them and to reign himself; and she knew that while she had Richard, Edward would be safe, since it would not make him king to destroy one without the other. Archbishop Bouchier, who believed Richard's smooth words, and was a very good, kind man, thought this all a woman's nonsense, and told her that if she would not give up the boy freely, he would be taken from her by force. If she had been really a wise, brave mother, she would have gone to the Tower with her boy, as queen and mother, and watched over her children herself. But she had always been a silly, selfish woman, and she was afraid for herself. So she let the archbishop lead her child away, and only sat crying in the sanctuary instead of keeping sight of him.

The next thing that happened was, that the Duke of Gloucester caused one Dr. Shaw to preach a sermon to the people of London in the open air, explaining that King Edward IV. had been a very bad man, and had never been properly married to Lady Grey, and so that she was no queen at all, and her children had no right to reign. The Londoners liked Gloucester and hated the Woodvilles, and all belonging to them, and after some sermons

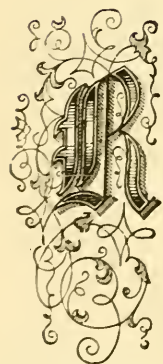
and speeches of this sort, there were so many people inclined to take as their king the man rather than the boy, that the Duke of Buckingham led a deputation to request Richard to accept the crown in his nephew's stead. He met it as if the whole notion was quite new to him, but, of course, accepted the crown, sent for his wife, Anne Nevil, and her son, and was soon crowned as King Richard III. of England.

As for the two boys, they were never seen out of the Tower again. They were sent into the prison part of it, and nobody exactly knows what became of them there; but there cannot be much doubt that they must have been murdered. Some years later, two men confessed that they had been employed to smother the two brothers with pillows, as they slept; and though they added some particulars to the story that can hardly be believed, it is most likely that this was true. Full two hundred years later, a chest was found under a staircase, in what is called the White Tower, containing bones that evidently had belonged to boys of about fourteen and eleven years old; and these were placed in a marble urn among the tombs of the kings in Westminster Abbey. But even to this day, there are some people who doubt whether Edward V. and Richard of York were really murdered, or if Richard were not a person who came back to England and tried to make himself king.

CHAPTER XXIV.

RICHARD III.

A.D. 1483-1485.



RICHARD III. seems to have wished to be a good and great king; but he had made his way to the throne in too evil a manner to be likely to prosper. How many people he had put to death we do not know; for when the English began to suspect that he had murdered his two nephews, they also accused him of the death of every one who had been secretly slain ever since Edward IV. came to the throne, when he had been a mere boy. He found he must be always on the watch; and his home was unhappy, for his son, for whose sake he had striven so hard to be king, died while yet a boy, and Anne, his wife, not long after.

Then his former staunch friend, the Duke of Buckingham, began to feel that though he wanted the sons of Elizabeth Woodville to be set aside from

reigning, it was quite another thing to murder them. He was a vain, proud man, who had a little royal blood—being descended from Thomas, the first Duke of Gloucester, son of Edward III.—and he bethought himself that, now all the House of Lancaster was gone, and so many of the House of York, he might possibly become king. But he had hardly begun to make a plot, before the keen-sighted, watchful Richard found it out, and had him seized and beheaded.

There was another plot, though, that Richard did not find out in time. The real House of Lancaster had ended when poor young Edward was killed at Tewkesbury; but the Beauforts—the children of that younger family of John of Gaunt, who had first begun the quarrel with the Duke of York—were not all dead. Lady Margaret Beaufort, the daughter of the eldest son, had married a Welsh gentleman named Edmund Tudor, and had a son called Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond. Edward IV. had always feared that this youth might rise against him, and he had been obliged to wander about in France and Brittany since the death of his father; but nobody was afraid of Lady Margaret, and she had married a Yorkist nobleman, Lord Stanley.

Now, the eldest daughter of Edward IV.—Elizabeth, or Lady Bessee, as she was called—was older than her poor young brothers; and she heard, to her great horror, that her uncle wanted to commit the great wickedness of making her his wife, after poor Anne Nevil's death. There is a curious old set of verses, written by Lord Stanley's squire, which says that Lady Bessee called Lord Stanley to a secret room, and begged him to send to his stepson, Richmond, to invite him to come to England and set them all free.

Stanley said he could not write well enough, and that he could not trust a scribe; but Lady Bessee said she could write as well as any scribe in England. So she told him to come to her chamber at nine that evening, with his trusty squire; and there she wrote letters, kneeling by the table, to all the noblemen likely to be discontented with Richard, and appointing a place of meeting with Stanley; and she promised herself that, if Henry Tudor would come and overthrow the cruel tyrant Richard, she would marry him: and she sent him a ring in pledge of her promise.

Henry was in Brittany when he received the letter. He kissed the ring, but waited long before he made up his mind to try his fortune. At last he sailed in a French ship, and landed at Milford Haven—for he knew the Welsh would be delighted to see him; and, as he was really descended from the great old British chiefs, they seemed to think that to make him king of England would be almost like having King Arthur back again.

They gathered round him, and so did a great many English nobles and gentlemen. But Richard, though very angry, was not much alarmed, for he knew Henry Tudor had never seen a battle. He marched out to meet him,

and a terrible fight took place at Redmore Heath, near Market Bosworth, where, after long and desperate struggling, Richard was overwhelmed and slain, his banner taken, and his men either killed or driven from the field. His body was found gashed, bleeding, and stripped: and thus was thrown across a horse and carried into Leicester, where he had slept the night before. The crown he had worn over his helmet was picked up from the branches of a hawthorn, and set on the head of Henry Tudor. Richard was the last king of the Plantagenet family, who had ruled over England for more than three hundred years. This battle of Bosworth likewise finished the whole bloody war of the Red and White Roses.

CHAPTER XXV.

HENRY VII.

A.D. 1485-1509.



HENRY Tudor married the Lady Bessee as soon as he came to London, and by this marriage the causes of the Red and White Roses were united: so that he took for his badge a great rose—half red and half white. It may be seen carved all over the beautiful chapel that he built on to Westminster Abbey to be buried in.

He was not a very pleasant person; he was stiff, and cold, and dry, and very mean and covetous in some ways—though he liked to make a grand show, and dress all his court in cloth of gold and silver, and the very horses in velvet housings, whenever there was any state occasion. Nobody greatly cared for him; but the whole country was so worn out with the troubles of the Wars of the Roses, that there was no desire to interfere with him; and people only grumbled, and said he did not treat his gentle, beautiful wife Elizabeth as he ought to do, but was jealous of her being a king's daughter. There was one person who did hate him most bitterly, and that was the Duchess of Burgundy, the sister of Edward IV. and Richard III.: the same one who encouraged printing so much. She felt as if a mean upstart had got into the place of her brothers, and his having married her niece did not make it seem a bit the better to her. There was one nephew left—the poor young orphan son of George, Duke of Clarence—but he had always been quite silly, and Henry VII. had him watched carefully, for fear some one should set him up to claim the

THE PORTRAITS OF MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.



JANET'S "LA REINE BLANCHE."

THE PORTRAITS OF MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

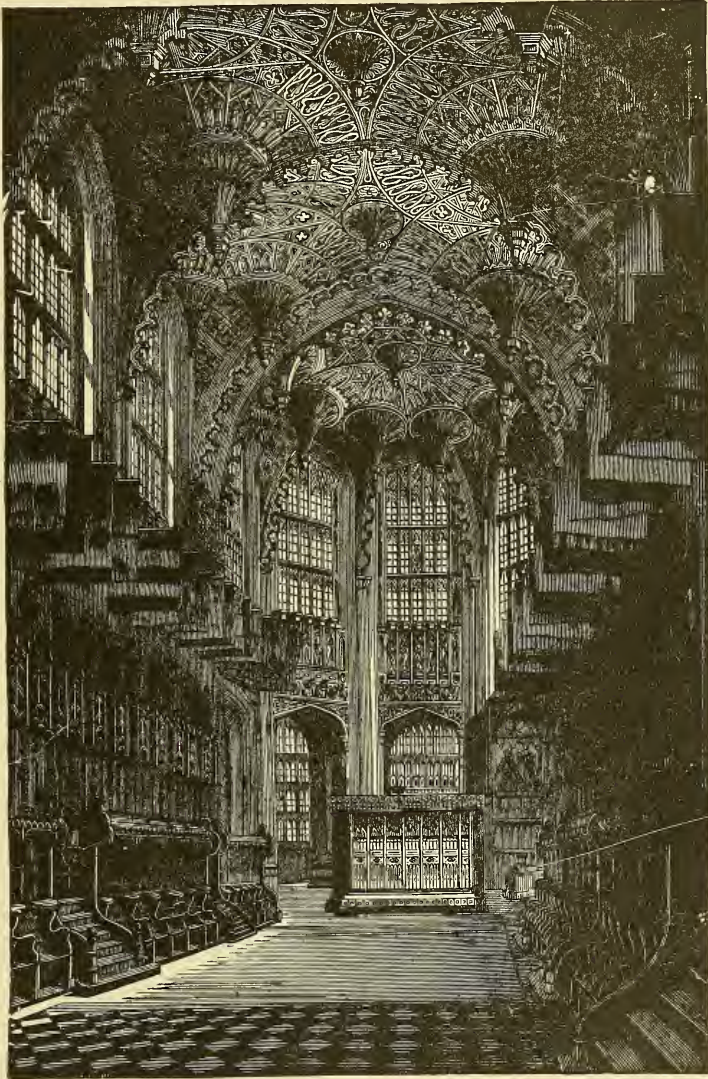
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crown. He was called Earl of Warwick, as heir to his grandfather, the king-maker.

Suddenly, a young man came to Ireland and pretended to be this Earl of Warwick. He deceived a good many of the Irish, and the Mayor of Dublin



CHAPEL OF HENRY VII.

actually took him to St. Patrick's Cathedral, where he was crowned as King Edward the Sixth; and then he was carried to the banquet upon an Irish chieftain's back. He came to England with some Irish followers, and some German soldiers hired by the Duchess; and a few, but not many, English joined him. Henry met him at a village called Stoke, near Newark, and all

his Germans and Irish were killed, and he himself made prisoner. Then he confessed that he was really a baker's son, named Lambert Simnel; and, as he turned out to be a poor weak lad, whom designing people had made to do just what they pleased, the king took him into his kitchen as a scullion; and, as he behaved well there, afterward set him to look after the falcons, that people used to keep to go out with to catch partridges and herons.

But after this, a young man appeared under the protection of the Duchess of Burgundy, who said he was no other than the poor little Duke of York, Richard, who had escaped from the Tower when his brother was murdered. Englishmen, who came from Flanders, said that he was a clever, cowardly lad of the name of Peter (or Perkin) Warbeck, the son of a townsman of Tournay; but the Duchess persuaded King James IV. of Scotland to believe him a real royal Plantagenet. He went to Edinburgh, married a beautiful lady, cousin to the king, and James led him into England at the head of an army to put forward his claim. But nobody would join him, and the Scots did not care about him; so James sent him away to Ireland, whence he went to Cornwall. However, he soon found fighting was of no use, and fled away to the New Forest, where he was taken prisoner. He was set in the stocks, and there made to confess that he was really Perkin Warbeck and no duke, and then he was shut up in the Tower. But there he made friends with the real Earl of Warwick, and persuaded him into a plan for escape; but this was found out, and Henry, thinking that he should never have any peace or safety while either of them was alive, caused Perkin to be hanged, and poor innocent Edward of Warwick to be beheaded.

It was thought that this cruel deed was done because Henry found that foreign kings did not think him safe upon the throne while one Plantagenet was left alive, and would not give their children in marriage to his sons and daughters. He was very anxious to make grand marriages for his children, and made peace with Scotland by a wedding between King James and his eldest daughter, Margaret. For his eldest son, Arthur, Prince of Wales, he obtained Katharine, the daughter of the King of Aragon and Queen of Castille, and she was brought to England while both were mere children. Prince Arthur died when only eighteen years old; and King Henry then said that they had been both such children, that they could not be considered as really married, and so that Katharine had better marry his next son, Henry, although every one knew that no marriage between a man and his brother's widow could be lawful. The truth was that he did not like to give up all the money and jewels she had brought; and the matter remained in dispute for some years—nor was it settled when King Henry himself died, after an illness that no one expected would cause his death. Nobody was very sorry for him, for he had been hard upon every one, and had ex-

couraged two wicked judges, named Dudley and Empson, who made people pay most unjust demands, and did everything to fill the king's treasury and make themselves rich at the same time.

It was a time when many changes were going on peacefully. The great nobles had grown much poorer and less powerful; and the country squires and chief people in the towns reckoned for much more in the State. Moreover, there was much learning and study going on everywhere. Greek began to be taught as well as Latin, and the New Testament was thus read in the language in which the apostles themselves wrote; and that led people to think over some of the evil ways that had grown up in their churches and abbeys, during those long, grievous years, when no one thought of much but fighting, or of getting out of the way of the enemy.

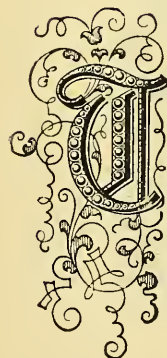
The king himself, and all his family, loved learning, and nobody more than his son Henry, who—if his elder brother had lived—was to have been archbishop of Canterbury.

It was in this reign, too, that America was discovered—though not by the English, but by Christopher Columbus, an Italian, who went out in ships that were lent to him by Isabel, the Queen of Spain, mother to Katherine, Princess of Wales. Henry had been very near sending Columbus, only he did not like spending so much money. However, he afterward did send out some ships, which discovered Newfoundland. Henry died in the year 1509.

CHAPTER XXVI.

HENRY VIII. AND CARDINAL WOLSEY.

A.D. 1509-1529.



THE new king was very fond of the Princess Katharine, and he married her soon after his father's death, without asking any more questions about the right or wrong of it. He began with very gallant and prosperous times. He was very handsome, and skilled in all sports and games, and had such frank, free manners, that the people felt as if they had one of their best old Plantagenets back again. They were pleased, too, when he quarreled with the King of France, and, like an old Plantagenet, led an army across the sea and besieged the town of Tournay. Again, it was like the time of Edward III., for James IV. of Scotland was a friend of the French king and came across the Border with

all the strength of Scotland, to ravage England while Henry was away. But there were plenty of stout Englishmen left, and, under the Earl of Surrey,



THE BATTLE OF THE SPURS.

they beat the Scots entirely at the battle of Flodden field: and King James himself was not taken, but left dead upon the field, while his kingdom went to his poor little baby son. Though there had been a battle in France, it

was not another Crecy, for the French ran away so fast that it was called the battle of the Spurs. However, Henry's expedition did not come to much, for he did not get all the help he was promised; and he made peace with the French king, giving him in marriage his beautiful young sister Mary—though King Louis was an old, helpless, sickly man. Indeed, he only lived six weeks after the wedding, and before there was time to fetch Queen Mary home again, she had married a gentleman named Charles Brandon. She told her brother that she had married once to please him, and now she had married to please herself. But he forgave her, and made her husband Duke of Suffolk.

Henry's chief adviser, at this time, was Thomas Wolsey, Archbishop of York: a very able man, and of most splendid tastes and habits—outdoing even the Tudors in love of show. The pope had made him a cardinal—that is, one of the clergy who are counted as parish priests in the diocese of Rome, and therefore have a right to choose the pope. They wear scarlet hats, capes, and shoes, and are the highest in rank of all the clergy except the pope. Indeed, Cardinal Wolsey was in hopes of being chosen pope himself, and setting the whole Church to rights—for there had been several very wicked men reigning at Rome, one after the other, and they had brought things to such a pass that every one felt there would be some great judgment from God if some improvement were not made. Most of Wolsey's arrangements with foreign princes had this end in view. The new king of France, Francis I., was young, brilliant, and splendid, like Henry, and the two had a conference near Calais, when they brought their queens and their whole Court, and put up tents of velvet, silk, and gold—while everything was so extraordinarily magnificent, that the meeting has ever since been called the Field of the Cloth of Gold.

However, nothing came of it all. Cardinal Wolsey thought Francis's enemy—the Emperor, Charles V.—more likely to help him to be pope, and made his master go over to that side; but after all an Italian was chosen in his stead. And there came a new trouble in his way. The king and queen had been married a good many years, and they had only one child alive, and that was a girl, the Lady Mary—all the others had died as soon as they were born—and statesmen began to think that if there never was a son at all, there might be fresh wars when Henry died; while others said that the loss of the children was to punish them for marrying unlawfully. Wolsey himself began to wish that the pope would say that it had never been a real marriage, and so set the king free to put Katharine away and take another wife—some grand princess abroad. This was thinking more of what seemed prudent than of the right; and it turned out ill for Wolsey and all besides, for no sooner had the notion of setting aside poor Katharine come into his mind, than the king cast his eyes on Anne Boleyn, one of her maids of

honor—a lively lady, who had been to France with his sister Mary. He was bent on marrying her, and insisted on the pope's giving sentence against Katharine. But the pope would not make any answer at all; first, because he was enquiring, and then because he could not well offend Katharine's nephew, the Emperor. Time went on, and the king grew more impatient, and at last a clergyman, named Thomas Cranmer, said that he might settle the matter by asking the learned men at the universities whether it was lawful for a man to marry his brother's widow. "He has got the right sow by the ear," cried Henry, who was not choice in his words, and he determined that the universities should decide it. But Wolsey would not help the king here. He knew that the pope had been the only person to decide such questions all over the Western Church for many centuries; and, besides, he had never intended to assist the king to lower himself by taking a wife like Anne Boleyn. But his secretary, Thomas Cromwell, told the king all of Wolsey's disapproval, and between them they found out something that the cardinal had done by the king's own wish, but which did not agree with the old disused laws. He was put down from all his offices of state, and accused of treason against the king; but while he was being brought to London to be tried, he became so ill at the abbey at Leicester that he was forced to remain there, and in a few days he died, saying, sadly—"If I had served my God as I have served my king, He would not have forsaken me in my old age."

With Cardinal Wolsey ended the first twenty years of Henry's reign, and all that had ever been good in it.



CHAPTER XXVII.

HENRY VIII. AND HIS WIVES.

A.D. 1528-1547.



HEN Henry VIII. had so ungratefully treated Cardinal Wolsey, there was no one to keep him in order. He would have no more to do with the pope, but said he was head of the Church of England himself, and could settle matters his own way. He really was a very learned man, and had written a book to uphold the doctrines of the Church, which had caused the pope to call him the Defender of the Faith. After the king's or queen's name on a coin may be seen F. D.—*Fidei Defensor*. This stands for that name in Latin. But Henry used his learning now against the pope. He declared that his marriage with Katharine was good for nothing, and sent her away to a house in Huntingdonshire, where, in three years' time, she pined away and died. In the meantime, he had married Anne Boleyn, taken Crumwell for his chief adviser, and had made Thomas Cranmer archbishop of Canterbury. Then, calling himself Head of the Church, he insisted that all his people should own him as such; but the good ones knew that our Lord Jesus Christ is the only real Head of the Church, and they had learnt to believe that the pope is the father bishop of the west, though he had sometimes taken more power than he ought, and no king could ever be the same as a patriarch or father bishop. So they refused, and Henry cut off the heads of two of the best—Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More—though they had been his great friends. Sir Thomas More's good daughter, Margaret, came and kissed him on his way to be executed; and afterward, when his head was placed on a spike on London Bridge, she came by night in a boat and took it home in her arms.

There were many people, however, who were glad to break with the pope, because so much had gone amiss in the Church, and they wanted to set it to rights. There was so much more reading, now that printing had been invented, that many persons could read who had never learnt Latin, and so a translation of the Bible was to be made for them; and there was a great desire that the Church Services—many of which had also been in Latin—should likewise be put into English, and the litany was first translated,—but no more at present. The king and Crumwell had taken it upon

them to go on with what had been begun in Wolsey's time—the looking into the state of all the monasteries. Some were found going on badly, and the messengers took care to make the worst of everything. So all the worst houses were broken up, and the monks sent to their homes, with a small payment to maintain them for the rest of their lives.

As to the lands that good men of old had given to keep up the convents, that God might be praised there, Henry made gifts of them to the lords about court. Whoever chose to ask for an abbey could get it, from the king's good nature; and, as they wanted more and more, Henry went on breaking up the monasteries, till the whole of them were gone. A good deal of their riches he kept for himself, and two new bishoprics were endowed from their spoils, but most of them were bestowed on the courtiers.



ANNE BOLEYN.

JANE SEYMOUR.

KATHARINE HOWARD.

The king, however, did not at all intend to change the teaching of the Church, and whenever a person was detected in teaching anything contrary to her doctrines, as they were at that time understood, he was tried by a court of clergymen and lawyers before the bishop, and, if convicted, was—according to the cruel custom of those times—burnt to death at a stake in the market-place of the next town.

Meantime, the new queen, Anne Boleyn, had not prospered. She had one little daughter, named Elizabeth, and a son, who died; and then the king began to admire one of her ladies, named Jane Seymour. Seeing this, Anne's enemies either invented stories against her, or made the worst of some foolish, unlady-like, and unqueen-like things she had said and done, so that the king thought she wished for his death. She was accused of high treason, sentenced to death, and beheaded: thus paying a heavy price for the harm she had done good Queen Katharine.

The king, directly after, married Jane Seymour; but she lived only a very short time, dying immediately after the christening of her first son, who was named Edward.

Then the king was persuaded by Lord Crumwell to marry a foreign princess called Anne of Cleves. A great painter was sent to bring her picture, and made her very beautiful in it; but when she arrived, she proved to be not only plain-featured but large and clumsy, and the king could not bear the sight of her, and said they had sent him a great Flanders mare by way of queen. So he made Cranmer find some foolish excuse for breaking this marriage also, and was so angry with Thomas Crumwell for having led him into it, that this favorite was in his turn thrown into prison and beheaded.

The king chose another English wife, named Katharine Howard; but, after he had married her, it was found out that she had been very ill brought up, and the bad people with whom she had been left came and accused her of the evil into which they had led her. So the king cut off her head likewise, and then wanted to find another wife; but no foreign princess would take a husband who had put away two wives and beheaded two more, and one Italian lady actually answered that she was much obliged to him, but she could not venture to marry him, because she had only one neck.

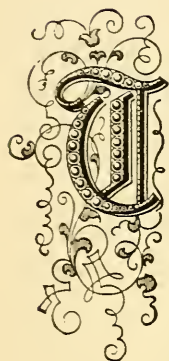
At last he found an English widow, Lady Latimer, whose maiden name was Katharine Parr, and married her. He was diseased now, lame with gout, and very large and fat; and she nursed him kindly, and being a good-natured woman, persuaded him to be kinder to his daughters, Mary and Elizabeth, than he had ever been since the disgrace of their mothers; and she did her best to keep him in good humor, but he went on doing cruel things, even to the end of his life; and, at the very last, had in prison the very same Duke of Norfolk who had won the battle of Flodden, and would have put him to death in a few days' time, only that his own death prevented it.

Yet, strange to say, Henry VIII. was not hated as might have been expected. His cruelties were chiefly to the nobles, not to the common people; and he would do good-natured things, and speak with a frank, open manner, that was much liked. England was prosperous, too, and shopkeepers, farmers, and all were well off; there was plenty of bread and meat for all, and the foreign nations were afraid to go to war with England. So the English people, on the whole, loved "Bluff King Hal," as they called him, and did not think much about his many wickednesses, or care how many heads he cut off. He died in the year 1547. The changes in his time are generally called the beginning of the Reformation.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

EDWARD VI.

A.D. 1547-1553.



HE little son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour of course reigned after him as Edward VI. He was a quiet, gentle boy, exceedingly fond of learning and study, and there were great expectations of him; but, as he was only nine years old, the affairs of state were managed by his council.

The chief of the council were his two uncles—his mother's brothers, Edward and Thomas Seymour, the elder of whom had been made Duke of Somerset—together with Archbishop Cranmer; but it was not long before the duke quarreled with his brother Thomas, put him into the Tower, and cut off his head; so that it seemed as if the sad days of Henry VIII. were not yet over.

The Duke of Somerset and Archbishop Cranmer wanted to make many more changes in the Church of England than Henry VIII. had ever allowed. They had all the Prayer-book Services translated into English, leaving out such parts as they did not approve; the Lessons were read from the English Bible, and people were greatly delighted at being able to worship and to listen to God's Word in their own tongue. The first day on which the English Prayer-book was used was the Whitsunday of 1548. The Bibles were chained to the desks as being so precious and valuable; and crowds would stand, or sit, and listen for hours together to any one who would read to them, without caring if he were a clergyman or not; and men who tried to explain, without being properly taught, often made great mistakes.

Indeed, in Germany and France a great deal of the same kind had been going on for some time past, though not with any sort of leave from the kings or bishops, as there was in England, and thus the reformers there broke quite off from the Church, and fancied they could do without bishops. This great break was called the Reformation, because it professed to set matters of religion to rights; and in Germany the reformers called themselves Protestants, because they protested against some of the teachings of the Church of Rome.

Cranmer had at one time been in Germany, and had made friends with some of these German and Swiss Protestants, and he invited them to England to consult and help him and his friends. Several of them came, and



KING HENRY VIII

THE PORTRAITS OF MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

it bears his monogram, "C. R.,"
a crown, and has attached to
the keeper of the king's pictures
it is Queen Marye of Scotland,
s Majesty for the Cabinet Room,
st." Its history before it came
sion of Charles has never been
atisfaction of the antiquarians.
rk brown, the widow's whitecap

Patrick Fraser-Tytler, the his
land, published in 1845, for priv
only, a monograph in which
to prove that the picture now
"Fraser-Tytler Portrait" was
likeness painted in 1560 shor
death of Francis II., and se
through Lord Seton, to Elizabet
to an artist named Stewart, w



From the Original Portrait in possession of the Lord Napier

Vostretres humble: et tresobeis ante fille
marie

THE PORTRAITS OF MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS



ENT IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY. (AFTER AN ENGRAVING BY R. C. BELL OF THE ORIGINAL BY GEORGE SCHARF, JR., F. S. A.)

e closest surveillance. Walpole Zuccaro could never have seen not included him in a long list painted purely imaginative portrait who, for various reasons, could have since been attributed to portrait of Mary and James VI., ascribed to Zuccaro, now in the . London. must of necessity be

Company for safe keeping, and it back; still another that it was some of the royal palaces by Sir man in the reign of Charles II.; insinuated that it is a portrait of Isabella Boreman, Sir William's cleaned at the instigation of Boydell towards the close of the and it has been engraved by B. Another portrait of Mary w

they found fault with the old English Prayer-book—though it had never been the same as the Roman one—and it was altered again to please them and their friends, and brought out as King Edward's second book. Indeed, they tried to persuade the English to be like themselves—with very few



EDWARD VI. WRITING HIS JOURNAL.

services, no ornaments in the churches, and no bishops; and things seemed to be tending more and more to what they desired, for the king was too young not to do what his tutors and governors wished, and his uncle and Cranmer were all on their side.

However, there was another great nobleman, the Duke of Northumberland, who wanted to be as powerful as the Duke of Somerset. He was the

son of Dudley, the wicked judge under Henry VII., who had made himself so rich, and he managed to take advantage of the people being discontented with Somerset to get the king into his own hands, accuse Somerset of treason, send him to the Tower, and cut off his head.

The king at this time was sixteen. He had never been strong, and he had learnt and worked much more than was good for him. He wrote a journal; and though he never says he grieved for his uncles, most likely he did, for he had few near him who really loved or cared for him, and he was fast falling into a decline, so that it became quite plain that he was not likely ever to be a grown-up king. There was a great difficulty as to who was to reign after him. The natural person would have been his eldest sister, Mary, but King Henry had forbidden her and Elizabeth to be spoken of as princesses or heiresses of the crown; and, besides, Mary held so firmly to the Church, as she had learnt to believe in it in her youth, that the reformers knew she would undo all their work.

There was a little Scottish girl, also named Mary—the grand-daughter of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. Poor child, she had been a queen from babyhood, for her father had died of grief when she was but a week old; and there had been some notion of marrying her to King Edward, and so ending the wars; but the Scots did not like this, and sent her away to be married to the Dauphin, François, eldest son of the king of France. If Edward's sisters were not to reign, she came next; but the English would not have borne to be joined on to the French; and there were the grand-daughters of Mary, that other sister of Henry VIII., who were thorough Englishwomen. Lady Jane Grey, the eldest of them, was a good, sweet, pious, and diligent girl of fifteen, wonderfully learned. But it was not for that reason, only for the sake of the royal blood, that the Duke of Northumberland asked her in marriage for his son, Guildford Dudley. When they were married, the duke and Cranmer began to persuade the poor, sick, young king that it was his duty to leave his crown away from his sister Mary to Lady Jane, who would go on with the Reformation, while Mary would try to overthrow it. In truth, young Edward had no right to will away the crown; but he was only sixteen, and could only trust to what the archbishop and his council told him. So he signed the parchment they brought him, and after that he quickly grew worse.

The people grew afraid that Northumberland was shutting him up and misusing him, and once he came to the window of his palace and looked out at them, to show he was alive; but he died only a fortnight later, and we cannot guess what he would have been when he was grown up.



PICCADILLY.

over it, and the unemployed lie thick on the grass and cover the benches with a brotherhood of greasy corduroys. If the London parks are the drawing-rooms and clubs of the poor,—that is, of those poor (I admit it cuts down the number) who live near enough to them to reach them,—these particular grass-plots and alleys may be said to constitute the very *salon* of the slums.

I know not why, being such a region of

nothing left but to go on to his work—which he will find close at hand. He will have come the whole way from the far north-west on the turf, which is what was to be demonstrated.

v.

I FEEL as if I were taking a tone almost of boastfulness, and no doubt the best way to consider the matter is simply to say—without



SOUTH LONDON.

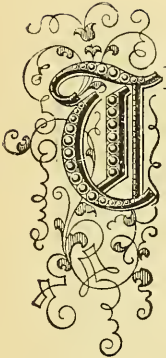
greatness,—great towers, great names, great memories; at the foot of the Abbey the Parliament, the fine fragment of Whitehall, with the quarters of the Guards of the sovereign right and left,—but the edge of Westminster evokes as many associations of misery as of empire. The neighborhood has been much purified of late, but it still contains a collection of specimens—though it is far from unique in this—of the low black element. The air always seems to me heavy and thick, and here more than elsewhere one hears old England—the panting, smoke-stained Titan of Matthew Arnold's fine poem—draw her breath with effort.

going into the treachery of reasons—that, for one's self, one likes this part or the other. Yet this course would not be unattended with danger, inasmuch as at the end of a few such professions we might find ourselves committed to a tolerance of much that is deplorable. London is so clumsy and brutal, and has gathered together so many of the darkest sides of life, that it is almost ridiculous to talk of her as a lover talks of his mistress, and almost frivolous to appear to ignore her disfigurements and cruelties. She is like a mighty ogress who devours human flesh; but to me it is a mitigating circumstance—though it may not seem so

CHAPTER XXIX.

MARY I.

A.D. 1553-1558.



THE Duke of Northumberland kept King Edward's death a secret till he had proclaimed Jane queen of England. The poor girl knew that a great wrong was being done in her name. She wept bitterly, and begged that she might not be forced to accept the crown; but she could do nothing to prevent it, when her father and husband, and his father, all were bent on making her obey them; and so she had to sit as a queen in the royal apartments in the Tower of London.

But as soon as the news reached Mary, she set off riding toward London; and, as every one knew her to be the right queen, and no one would be tricked by Dudley, the whole of the people joined her, and even Northumberland was obliged to throw up his hat and cry "God save Queen Mary." Jane and her husband were safely kept, but Mary meant no harm by them if their friends would have been quiet. However, the people became discontented when Mary began to have the Latin service used again, and put Archbishop Cranmer in prison for having favored Jane. She showed in every way that she thought all her brother's advisers had done very wrong. She wanted to be under the Pope again, and she engaged herself to marry the King of Spain, her cousin, Philip II. This was very foolish of her, for she was a middle-aged woman, pale, and low-spirited; and he was much younger, and of a silent, gloomy temper, so that every one was afraid of him. All her best friends advised her not, and the English hated the notion so much, that the little children played at the queen's wedding in their games, and always ended by pretending to hang the King of Spain. Northumberland thought this discontent gave another chance for his plan, and tried to raise the people in favor of Jane; but so few joined him that Mary very soon put them down, and beheaded Northumberland. She thought, too, that the quiet of the country would never be secure while Jane lived, and so she consented to her being put to death. Jane behaved with beautiful firmness and patience. Her husband was led out first and beheaded, and then she followed. She was most good and innocent in herself, and it was for the faults of others that she suffered. Mary's sister, Elizabeth, was suspected, and sent to the Tower. She came in a boat on

the Thames to the Traitor's Gate ; but, when she found where she was, she sat down on the stone steps, and said, " This is a place for traitors, and I am none." After a time she was allowed to live in the country, but closely watched.

Philip of Spain came and was married to Mary. She was very fond of him, but he was not very kind to her, and he had too much to do in his



RETURN OF CATHOLIC PRELATES UNDER MARY I.

other kingdoms to spend much time with her, so that she was always pining after him. Her great wish in choosing him was to be helped in bringing the country back to the old obedience to the Pope ; and she succeeded in having the English Church reconciled, and received again to communion with Rome. But this displeased many of her subjects exceedingly. They thought they should be forbidden to read the Bible—they could not endure the Latin service—and those who had been taught by the foreigners fancied

that all proper reverence and beauty in church was a sort of idolatry. Some fled away into Holland and Germany, and others, who stayed, and taught loudly against the doctrines that were to be brought back again, were seized and thrown into prison.

Those bishops who had been foremost in the changes of course were the first to be tried for their teaching. The punishment was the dreadful one of being burnt alive, chained to a stake. Bishop Hooper died in this way at Gloucester, and Bishop Ridley and Bishop Latimer were both burnt at the same time at Oxford, encouraging one another to die bravely as martyrs for the truth, as they held it. Cranmer was in prison already for supporting Jane Grey, and he was condemned to death; but he was led to expect that he would be spared the fire if he would allow that the old faith, as Rome held it, was the right one. Paper after paper was brought, such as would please the queen and his judges, and he signed them all; but after all, it turned out that none would do, and that he was to be burnt in spite of them. Then he felt what a base part he had acted, and was ashamed when he thought how bravely his brethren had died on the same spot: and when he was chained to the stake and the fire lighted, he held his right hand over the flame to be burnt first, because it had signed what he did not really believe, and he cried out, "This unworthy hand!"

Altogether, about three hundred people were burnt in Queen Mary's reign for denying one or other of the doctrines that the Pope thought the right ones. It was a terrible time; and the queen, who had only longed to do right and restore her country to the Church, found herself hated and disliked by every one. Even the Pope, who had a quarrel with her husband, did not treat her warmly; and the nobles, who had taken possession of the abbey lands, were determined never to let her restore them. Her husband did not love her, or like England. However, he persuaded her to help him in a war with the French, with which England ought to have had nothing to do, and the consequence was that a brave French duke took the city of Calais, the very last possession of the English in France. Mary was so exceedingly grieved, that she said that when she died the name of Calais would be found written on her heart.

She was already ill, and there was a bad fever at the time, of which many of those she most loved and trusted had fallen sick. She died, in 1558, a melancholy and sorrowful woman, after reigning only five years.



CHAPTER XXX.

ELIZABETH.

A.D. 1558-1587.



ALL through Queen Mary's time, her sister Elizabeth, Anne Boleyn's daughter, had been in trouble. Those who held by Queen Mary, and maintained Henry's first marriage, said that his wedding with Anne was no real one, and so that Elizabeth ought not to reign; but then there was no one else to take in her stead, except the young Queen Mary of Scotland, wife to the French dauphin. All who wished for the Reformation, and dreaded Mary's persecutions, had hoped to see Elizabeth queen, and this had made Mary much afraid of her; and she was so closely watched and guarded that once she even said she wished she was a milkmaid, to be left in peace. While she had been in the Tower she had made friends with another prisoner, Robert Dudley, brother to the husband of Lady Jane Grey, and she continued to like him better than any other person as long as he lived.

When Mary died, Elizabeth was twenty-five, and the English were mostly willing to have her for their queen. She had read, thought, and learnt a great deal; and she took care to have the advice of wise men, especially of the great Thomas Cecil, whom she made Lord Burleigh, and kept as her adviser as long as he lived. She did not always follow even his advice, however; but, whenever she did, it was the better for her. She knew Robert Dudley was not wise, so, though she was so fond of him, she never let him manage her affairs for her. She would have wished to marry him, but she knew her subjects would think this disgraceful, so she only made him Earl of Leicester: and her liking for him prevented her from ever bringing herself to accept any of the foreign princes who were always making proposals to her. Unfortunately he was not a good man, and did not make a good use of her favor, and he was much disliked by all the queen's best friends.

She was very fond of making stately journeys through the country. All the poor people ran to see her and admire her; but the noblemen who had to entertain her were almost ruined, she brought so many people who ate so much, and she expected such presents. These journeys were called Progresses. The most famous was to Lord Leicester's castle of Kenilworth, but



ELIZABETH SIGNING MARY'S DEATH-WARRANT.



QUEEN ELIZABETH



he could quite afford it. He kept the clock's hands at twelve o'clock all the time, that it might always seem to be dinner-time !

Elizabeth wanted to keep the English Church a pure and true branch of the Church, free of the mistakes that had crept in before her father's time. So she restored the English Prayer-Book, and canceled all that Mary had done; the people who had gone into exile returned, and all the Protestants abroad reckoned her as on their side. But, on the other hand, the Pope would not regard her as queen at all, and cut her and her country off from the Church, while Mary of Scotland and her husband called themselves the true queen and king of England; and such of the English as believed the Pope to have the first right over the Church, held with him and Mary of Scotland. They were called Roman Catholics, while Elizabeth and her friends were the real Catholics, for they held with the Church Universal of old; and it was the Pope who had broken off with them for not accepting his doctrines, not they with the Pope. The English who had lived abroad in Mary's time wanted to have much more altered, and to have churches and services much less beautiful and more plain than they were. But Elizabeth never would consent to this; and these people called themselves Puritans, and continued to object to whatever had been done in the old times—as if that made it wrong in itself.

Mary of Scotland was two years queen of France, and then her husband died, and she had to come back to Scotland. There most of the people had taken up doctrines that made them hate the sight of the clergy and services she had brought home from France; they called her an idolater, and would hardly bear that she should hear the old service in her own chapel. She was one of the most beautiful and charming women who ever lived, and if she had been as true and good as she was lovely, nobody could have done more good; but the court of France at that time was a wicked place, and she had learnt much of the wickedness. She married a young nobleman named Henry Stewart, a cousin of her own, but he turned out foolish, selfish, and headstrong, and made her miserable; indeed, he helped to kill her secretary in her own bedroom before her eyes. She hated him so much at last, that there is only too much reason to fear that she knew of the plot, laid by some of her lords, to blow the poor man's house up with gunpowder, while he lay in his bed ill of small-pox. At any rate, she very soon married one of the very worst of the nobles who had committed the murder. Her subjects could not bear this, and they rose against her and made her prisoner, while her husband fled the country. They shut her up in a castle in the middle of a lake, and obliged her to give up her crown to her little son, James VI.—a baby not a year old. However, her sweet words persuaded a boy who waited on her to steal the keys, and row her across the lake, and she was soon at the head of an army of her Roman Catholic subjects. They

were defeated, however, and she found no place safe for her in Scotland, so she fled across the Border to England. Queen Elizabeth hardly knew



THE DEATH-WARRANT DELIVERED TO MARY STUART.

what to do. She believed that Mary really had to do with Henry Stewart's death, but she could not bear to make such a crime known in a cousin and



MARY STUART LED TO EXECUTION.



MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS

Engraved by Frederick Delaunay

queen; and what made it all more difficult to judge was, that the kings of France and Spain, and all the Roman Catholics at home, thought Mary ought to be queen instead of Elizabeth, and she might have been set up against England if she had gone abroad, or been left at large, while in Scotland she would have been murdered. The end of it was, that Elizabeth kept her shut up in different castles. There she managed to interest the English Roman Catholics in her, and get them to lay plots, which always were found out. Then the nobles were put to death, and Mary was more closely watched. This went on for nineteen years, and at last a worse plot than all was found out—for actually killing Queen Elizabeth. Her servants did not act honorably, for when they found out what was going on they pretended not to know, so that Mary might go on writing worse and worse things, and then, at last, the whole was made known. Mary was tried and sentenced to death, but Elizabeth was a long time making up her mind to sign the order for her execution, and at last punished the clerks who sent it off, as if it had been their fault.

So Queen Mary of Scotland was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle, showing much bravery and piety. There are many people who still believe that she was really innocent of all that she was accused of, and that she only was ruined by the plots that were laid against her.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ELIZABETH'S REIGN.

A.D. 1587-1602.



Her reign ever was more glorious or better for the people than Queen Elizabeth's. It was a time when there were many very great men living—soldiers, sailors, writers, poets—and they all loved and looked up to the queen as the mother of her country. There really was nothing she did love like the good of her people, and somehow they all felt and knew it, and “Good Queen Bess” had their hearts—though she was not always right, and had some very serious faults.

The worst of her faults was not telling truth. Somehow kings and rulers had, at that time, learnt to believe that when they were dealing with other countries anything was fair, and that it was not wrong to tell falsehoods to hide a secret, nor to make promises they never

meant to keep. People used to do so who would never have told a lie on their own account to their neighbor, and Lord Burleigh and Queen Elizabeth did so very often, and often behaved meanly and shabbily to people who had trusted to their promises. Her other fault was vanity. She was a little woman, with bright eyes, a rather hooked nose, and sandy hair, but she managed to look every inch a queen, and her eye, when displeased, was like a lion's. She had really been in love with Lord Leicester, and every now and then he hoped she would marry him; indeed, there is reason to fear that he had his wife secretly killed, in order that he might be able to wed the queen; but she saw that the people would not allow her to do so, and gave it up. But she liked to be courted. She allowed foreign princes to send her their portraits, rings, and jewels, and sometimes to come and see her, but she never made up her mind to take them. And as to the gentlemen at her own court, she liked them to make the most absurd and ridiculous compliments to her, calling her their sun and goddess, and her hair golden beams of the morning, and the like; and the older she grew the more of these fine speeches she required of them. Her dress—a huge hoop, a tall ruff all over lace, and jewels in the utmost profusion—was as splendid as it could be made, and in wonderful variety. She is said to have had three hundred gowns and thirty wigs. Lord Burleigh said of her that she was sometimes more than a man, and sometimes less than a woman. And so she was, when she did not like her ladies to wear handsome dresses.

One of the people who had wanted to marry her was her brother-in-law, Philip of Spain; but she was far too wise, and he and she were bitter enemies all the rest of their lives. His subjects in Holland had become Protestants, and he persecuted them so harshly that they broke away from him. They wanted Elizabeth to be their queen, but she would not, though she sent Lord Leicester to help them with an army. With him went his nephew, Sir Philip Sydney, the most good, and learned, and graceful gentleman at court. There was great grief when Sir Philip was struck by a cannon-ball on the thigh, and died after nine days' pain. It was as he was riding from the field, faint and thirsty, that some one had just brought him a cup of water, when he saw a poor soldier, worse hurt than himself, looking at it with longing eyes. He put it from him untasted, and said, "Take it, thy necessity is greater than mine."

After the execution of Mary of Scotland, Philip of Spain resolved to punish Elizabeth and the English, and force them back to obedience to the Pope. He fitted out an immense fleet, and filled it with fighting men. So strong was it that, as armada is the Spanish for a fleet, it was called the Invincible Armada. It sailed for England, the men expecting to burn and ruin all before them. But the English ships were ready. Little as they were, they hunted and tormented the big Spaniards all the way up the



FRANCIS DRAKE KNIGHTED BY ELIZABETH.

English Channel; and, just as the Armada had passed the Straits of Dover, there came on such dreadful storms that the ships were driven and broken before it, and wrecked all round the coasts—even in Scotland and Ireland—

and very few ever reached home again. The English felt that God had protected them with His wind and storm, and had fought for them.

Lord Leicester died not long after, and the queen became almost equally fond of his stepson, the Earl of Essex, who was a brave, high-spirited young man, only too proud.

The sailors of Queen Elizabeth's time were some of the bravest and most skilful that ever lived. Sir Francis Drake sailed round the world in the good ship *Pelican*, and when he brought her into the Thames the queen went to look at her. Sir Walter Raleigh was another great sailor, and a most courtly gentleman besides. He took out the first English settlers to North America, and named their new home Virginia—after the virgin queen—and he brought home from South America our good friend the potato-root; and, also, he learnt there to smoke tobacco. The first time his servant saw this done in England, he thought his master must be on fire, and threw a bucket of water over him to put it out.

The queen valued these brave men much, but she liked none so well as Lord Essex, till at last he displeased her, and she sent him to govern Ireland. There he fell into difficulties, and she wrote angry letters, which made him think his enemies were setting her against him. So he came back without leave; and one morning came straight into her dressing chamber, where she was sitting, with her thin gray hair being combed, before she put on one of her thirty wigs, or painted her face. She was very angry, and would not forgive him, and he got into a rage too; and she heard he had said she was an old woman, crooked in temper as in person. What was far worse, he raised the Londoners to break out in a tumult to uphold him. He was taken and sent to the Tower, tried for treason, and found guilty of death. But the queen still loved him, and waited and waited for some message or token to ask her pardon. None came, and she thought he was too proud to beg for mercy. She signed the death-warrant, and Essex died on the block. But soon she found that he had really sent a ring she once had given him to a lady, who was to show it to her, in token that he craved her pardon. The ring had been taken by mistake to a cruel lady who hated him, and kept it back. But by and by this lady was sick to death. Then she repented, and sent for the queen and gave her the ring, and confessed her wickedness. Poor Queen Elizabeth—her very heart was broken. She said to the dying woman, "God may forgive you, but I cannot?" She said little more after that. She was old, and her strength failed her. Day after day she sat on a pile of cushions, with her finger on her lip, still growing weaker, and begging for the prayers the archbishop read her. And thus, she who had once been so great and spirited, sank into death, when seventy years old, in the year 1602.



THE "FRASER-TYTLER PORTRAIT." (AFTER AN ENGRAVING BY HENRY SHAW, F. S. A.)



Mary R

THE "MORTON PORTRAIT."

that of an Infanta of Spain, who lived many years after Mary's time, and who was even suggested as a proper wife for her grandson Charles I., that there can be little ground for the belief that it was intended for the Queen of Scots at all.

The earliest painted portraits of Mary are probably those executed in France before her marriage to the dauphin in 1558, for it is an established fact that François Clouet, otherwise Jehannet or Janet, who was court painter successively to Francis I., Henry II., Francis II., Charles IX., and Henry III., made a portrait of her about the year 1555, which was sent to the queen regent of Scotland, Mary of Guise.

Howard, there is a portrait of Mary ascribed to Janet, and, perhaps, the first sketch of the picture sent to her mother. It resembles the portrait in colored crayons in the library of St. Geneviève, in Paris, which has been reproduced by engraving in P. G. J. Neil's "Portraits des Personages Français," although they both suggest a woman of twenty or more, rather than a child of thirteen, and neither of them resembles in any way the subject of the Napier portrait described above. In the crayon drawing the eyes and hair are light brown. Janet is known to have painted another portrait of Mary during her first widowhood, and

CHAPTER XXXII.

JAMES I.

A.D. 1602-1625.



AFTER Queen Elizabeth's death, the next heir was James, the son of Mary of Scotland and of Henry Stewart. He was the sixth James who had been king of Scotland, and had reigned there ever since his mother had been driven away. He had been brought up very strictly by the Scottish Reformers, who had made him very learned, and kept him under great restraint; and all that he had undergone had tended to make him very awkward and strange in his manners. He was very timid, and could not bear to see a drawn sword; and he was so much afraid of being murdered, that he used to wear a dress padded and stuffed out all over with wool, which made him look even more clumsy than he was by nature.

The English did not much admire their new king, though it really was a great blessing that England and Scotland should be under the same king at last, so as to end all the long and bloody wars that had gone on for so many years. Still, the Puritans thought that, as James had been brought up in their way of thinking, they would be allowed to make all the changes that Queen Elizabeth had stopped; and the Roman Catholics recollected that he was Queen Mary's son, and that his Reformed tutors had not made his life very pleasant to him as a boy, so they had hopes from him.

But they both were wrong. James had really read and thought much, and was a much wiser man at the bottom than any one would have thought who had seen his disagreeable ways, and heard his silly way of talking. He thought the English Church was much more in the right than either of them, and he only wished that things should go on the same in England, and that the Scots should be brought to have bishops, and to use the prayers that Christians had used from the very old times, instead of each minister praying out of his own head, as had become the custom. But though he could not change the ways of the Scots at once, he caused all the best scholars and clergymen in his kingdom to go to work to make the translation of the Bible as right and good as it could be.

Long before this was finished, however, some of the Roman Catholics had formed a conspiracy for getting rid of all the chief people in the king-

dom; and so, as they hoped, bringing the rest back to the Pope. There were good men among the Roman Catholics who knew that such an act would be horrible; but there were some among them who had learnt to hate every one that they did not reckon as of the right religion, and to believe that everything was right that was done for the cause of their Church. So these men agreed that on the day of the meeting of Parliament, when the king, with the queen and Prince of Wales, would all be meeting the lords and commons, they would blow the whole of them up



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

with gunpowder; and, while the country was all in confusion, the king dead, and almost all his lords and the chief country squires, they would take the king's younger children—Elizabeth or Charles, who were both quite little—and bring one up as a Roman Catholic to govern England.

They bought some cellars under the Houses of Parliament, and stored them with barrels of gunpowder, hidden by faggots; and the time was nearly come, when one of the lords, called Monteagle, received a letter that puzzled him very much, advising him not to attend the meeting of Parliament, since a sudden destruction would come upon all who would there be present, and yet so that they would not know the doer of it. No one knows

who wrote the letter, but most likely it was one of the gentlemen who had been asked to join in the plot, and, though he would not betray his friends, could not bear that Lord Monteagle should perish. Lord Monteagle took the letter to the council, and there, after puzzling over it and wondering if it were a joke, the king said gunpowder was a means of sudden destruction; and it was agreed that, at any rate, it would be safer to look into the vaults. A party was sent to search, and there they found all the powder ready prepared, and, moreover, a man with a lantern, one Guy Fawkes, who had undertaken to be the one to set fire to the train of gunpowder, hoping to escape before the explosion. However, he was seized in time, and was forced to make confession. Most of the gentlemen concerned fled into the country, and shut themselves up in a fortified house; but there, strange to say, a barrel of gunpowder chanced to get lighted, and thus many were much hurt in the very way they had meant to hurt others.

There was a great thanksgiving all over the country, and it became the custom that, on the fifth of November—the day when the gunpowder plot was to have taken effect—there should be bonfires and fireworks, and Guy Fawkes' figure burnt; but people are getting wiser now, and think it better not to keep up the memory of old crimes and hatreds.

Henry, Prince of Wales, was a fine lad, fond of all that was good, but a little too apt to talk of wars, and of being like Henry V. He was very fond of ships and sailors, and delighted in watching the building of a grand vessel that was to take his sister Elizabeth across the sea, when she was to marry the Count Palatine of the Rhine. Before the wedding, however, Prince Henry fell suddenly ill and died.

King James was as fond of favorites as ever Elizabeth had been, though not of the same persons. One of the worst things he ever did was the keeping of Sir Walter Raleigh in the Tower for many years, and at last cutting off his head. Sir Walter had tried, when first James came, to set up a lady named Arabella Stewart to be queen; but if he was to be punished for that, it ought to have been directly, instead of keeping the sentence hanging over his head for years. The truth was that Sir Walter had been a great enemy to the Spaniards, and James wanted to please them, for he wished his son Charles to marry the daughter of the King of Spain. Charles wanted to see her first, and set off for Spain, in disguise, with the Duke of Buckingham, who was his friend, and his father's greatest favorite. But when he reached Madrid, he found that the princesses were not allowed to speak to any gentleman, nor to show their faces; and though he climbed over a wall to speak to her when she was walking in the garden, an attendant begged him to go away, or all her train would be punished. Charles went back disappointed, and, on his way through Paris, saw Henrietta Maria, the bright-eyed sister of the King of France, and set his heart on marrying her.

Before this was settled, however, King James was seized with an ague and died, in the year 1625. He was the first king of the family of Stewart, and a very strange person he was—wonderfully learned and exceedingly conceited; indeed, he liked nothing better than to be called the English Solomon. The worst of him was that, like Elizabeth, he thought kings and rulers might tell falsehoods and deceive. He called this kingcraft, and took this very bad sort of cunning for wisdom.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CHARLES I.

A.D. 1625-1649.



SO many of the great nobles had been killed in the Wars of the Roses, that the barons had lost all that great strength and power they had gained when they made King John sign Magna Carta. The kings got the power instead; and all through the reigns of the five Tudors, the sovereign had very little to hinder him from doing exactly as he pleased. But, in the meantime, the country squires and the great merchants who sat in the House of Commons had been getting richer and stronger, and read and thought more. As long as Queen Elizabeth lived they were contented, for they loved her and were proud of her, and she knew how to manage them. She scolded them sometimes, but when she saw that she was really vexing them she always changed, and she had smiles and good words for them, so that she could really do what she pleased with them.

But James I. was a disagreeable man to have to do with; and, instead of trying to please them, he talked a great deal about his own power as a king, and how they ought to obey him: so that they were angered, and began to read the laws, and wonder how much power properly belonged to him. Now, when he died, his son Charles was a much pleasanter person; he was a gentleman in all his looks and ways, and had none of his father's awkward, ungainly tricks and habits. He was good and earnest, too, and there was nothing to take offence at in himself; so for some years all went on quietly, and there seemed to be a great improvement. But several things were against him. His friend, the Duke of Buckingham, was a proud, selfish man, who affronted almost every one, and made a bad use of the

king's favor; and the people were also vexed that the king should marry a Roman Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria, who would not go to church with him, nor even let herself be crowned by an English archbishop.

It will be remembered that, in Queen Elizabeth's time, there were Puritans who would have liked to have the Prayer-book much more altered, and who fancied that every pious rule of old times must be wrong. They would not bow their heads at our blessed Lord's name; they did not like the cross in baptism, nor the ring in marriage; and they could not bear to see a clergyman in a surplice. In many churches they took their own way, and did just as they pleased. But under James and Charles matters changed. Dr. Laud, whom Charles made archbishop of Canterbury, saw that if things went on in this way people would forget all their reverence, and all the outward visible signs of the inward spiritual graces would be left off, and then how could the grace be received? So he had all the churches visited, and insisted on the parishioners setting them in order; and if a clergyman would not wear a surplice, nor make a cross on the baptized child's forehead, nor obey the other laws of the Prayer-book, he was punished.

The Puritans were greatly displeased. They fancied the king and Dr. Laud wanted to make them all Roman Catholics again; and a great many so hated these Church rules, that they took ship and went off to North America to found a colony, where they might set up their own religion as they liked it. Those who stayed continued to murmur and struggle against Laud.

There was another great matter of displeasure, and that was the way in which the king raised money. The right way is that he should call his Parliament together, and the House of Commons should grant him what he wanted. But there were other means. One was that every place in England should be called on to pay so much for ship money. This had begun when King Alfred raised his fleet to keep off the Danes; but it had come not to be spent on ships at all, but only to be money for the king to use. Another way that the kings had of getting money was from fines. People who committed some small offence, that did not come under the regular laws, were brought before the Council in a room at Westminster, that had a ceiling painted with stars—and so was called the Star Chamber—and there were sentenced, sometimes to pay heavy sums of money, sometimes to have their ears cut off. This Court of the Star Chamber had been begun in the days of Henry VII., and it is only a wonder that the English had borne it so long.

One thing Charles I. did that pleased his people, and that was sending help to the French Protestants, who were having their town of Rochelle besieged. But the English were not pleased that the command of the army was given to the Duke of Buckingham, his proud, insolent favorite. But Buckingham never went. As he was going to embark at Portsmouth, he

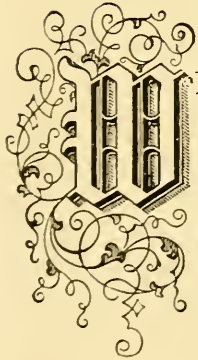
was stabbed to the heart by a man named Felton; nobody clearly knows why.

Charles did not get on much better even when Buckingham was dead. Whenever he called a Parliament, fault was always found with him and with the laws. Then he tried to do without a Parliament; and, as he, of course, needed money, the calls for ship money came more often, and the fines in the Star Chamber became heavier, and more cases for them were hunted out. Then murmurs arose. Just then, too, he and Archbishop Laud were trying to make the Scots return to the Church, by giving them bishops and a Prayer-book. But the first time the Service was read in a church at Edinburgh, a fishwoman, named Jenny Geddes, jumped up in a rage and threw a three-legged stool at the clergyman's head. Some Scots fancied they were being brought back to Rome; others hated whatever was commanded in England. All these leagued together, and raised an army to resist the king; and he was obliged to call a Parliament once more, to get money enough to resist them.

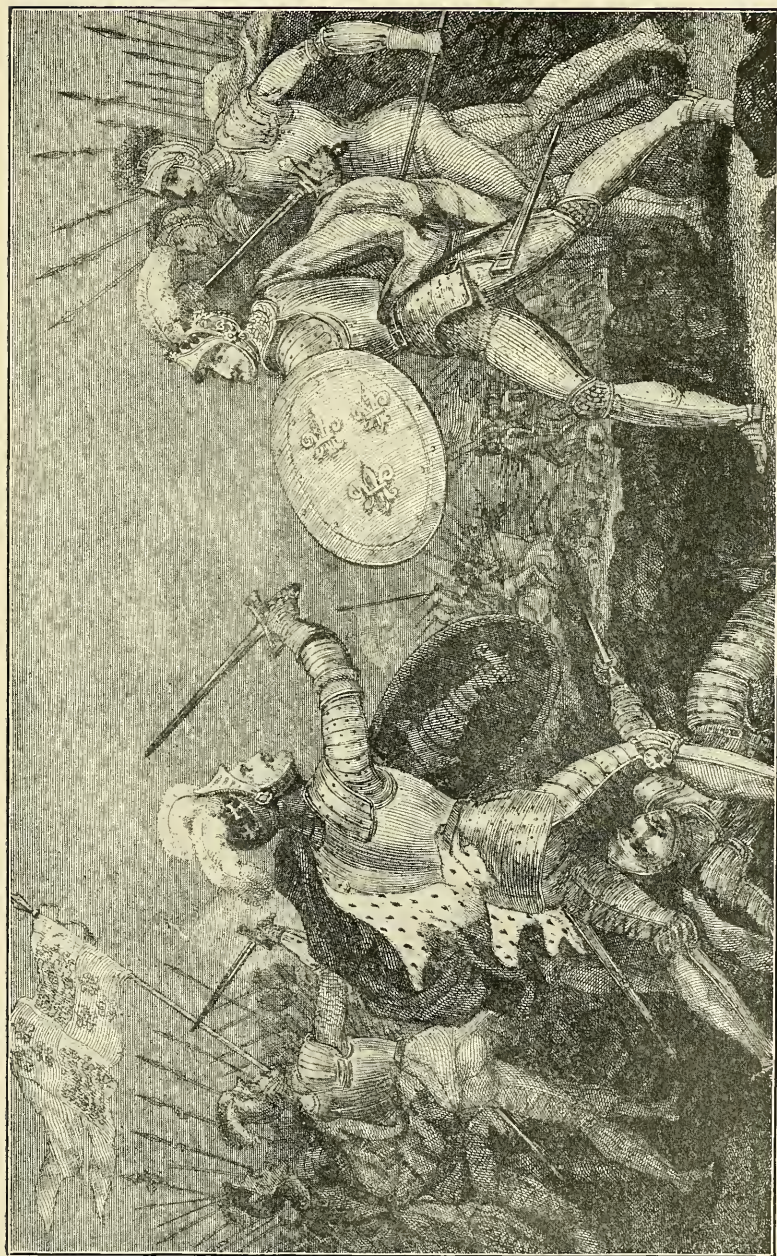
CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

A.D. 1641-1649.



WHEN Charles I. was obliged to call his Parliament, the House of Commons met, angered at the length of time that had passed since they had been called, and determined to use their opportunity. They speedily put an end both to the payment of ship money and to the Court of the Star Chamber; and they threw into prison the two among the king's friends whom they most disliked, namely, Archbishop Laud and the Earl of Strafford. The earl had been governor of Ireland, and had kept great order there, but severely; and he thought that the king was the only person who ought to have any power, and was always advising the king to put down all resistance by the strong hand. He was thought a hard man, and very much hated; and when he was tried the Houses of Parliament gave sentence against him that he should be beheaded. Still, this could not be done without the king's warrant; and Charles at first stood out against giving up his faithful friend. But there was a great tumult, and the queen and her mother grew frightened,



BATTLE OF AGINCOURT



LORD STAFFORD.
ON HIS WAY TO EXECUTION

Solman Press, Publisher, New York

and entreated the king to save himself by giving up Lord Strafford, until at last he consented, and signed the paper ordering the execution. It was a sad act of weakness and cowardice, and he mourned over it all the days of his life.



QUEEN HENRIETTA MARIA.

The Parliament only asked more and more, and at last the king thought he must put a check on them. So he resolved to go down to the House and cause the five members who spoke most against his power to be taken prisoners in his own presence. But he told his wife what he intended, and Henrietta Maria was so foolish as to tell Lady Carlisle, one of her ladies, and she sent warning to the five gentlemen, so that they were not in the

House when Charles arrived; and the Londoners rose up in a great mob, and showed themselves so angry with him, that he took the queen and his children away into the country. The queen took her daughter Mary to Holland, to marry the Prince of Orange; and there she bought muskets and gunpowder for her husband's army—for things had come to such a pass now that a civil war began. A civil war is the worst of all wars, for it is one between the people of the same country. There were ~~two~~ civil wars before. There were the Barons' wars, between Henry III. and Simon de Montfort, about the keeping of Magna Carta; and there were the wars of the Roses, to settle whether York or Lancaster should reign. This war between Charles I. and the Parliament was to decide whether the king or the House of Commons should be most powerful. Those who held with the king called themselves Cavaliers, but the friends of the Parliament called them Malignants; and they in turn nicknamed the Parliamentary party Roundheads, because they often chose not to wear their hair in the prevailing fashion, long and flowing on their shoulders, but cut short round their heads. Most of the Roundheads were Puritans, and hated the Prayer-book, and all the strict rules for religious worship that Archbishop Laud had brought in; and the Cavaliers, on the other hand, held by the bishops and the Prayer-book. Some of the Cavaliers were very good men indeed, and led holy and Christian lives, like their master the king, but there were others who were only bold, dashing men, careless and full of mirth and mischief; and the Puritans were apt to think all amusements and pleasures wrong, so that they made out the Cavaliers worse than they really were.

As it would be difficult to understand about all the battles, it is sufficient to say that the king's army was chiefly led by his nephew, Prince Rupert, the son of his sister Elizabeth. Rupert was a fiery, brave young man, who was apt to think a battle was won before it really was, and would ride after the people he had beaten himself, without waiting to see whether his help was wanted by the other captains; and so he did his uncle's cause as much harm as good.

The king's party had been the most used to war, and they prospered the most at first; but, as the soldiers of the Parliament became more trained, they gained the advantage. One of the members of Parliament, a gentleman named Oliver Cromwell, soon showed himself to be a much better captain than any one else in England, and from the time he came to the chief command the Parliament always had the victory. The places of the three chief battles were Edgehill, Marston Moor, and Naseby. The first was doubtful, but the other two were great victories of the Roundheads. Just after Marston Moor, the Parliament put to death Archbishop Laud, though they could not find anything he had done against the law; and at the same time, they forbade the use of the Prayer-Book, and turned out all the parish



THE CHILDREN OF CHARLES I.

Selmar Hess, Publisher New York

priests from the churches, putting in their stead men chosen after their own fashion, and not ordained by bishops. They likewise destroyed all they disliked in the churches—the painted glass, the organs, and the carvings; and when the Puritan soldiers took possession of a town or village, they would stable their horses in the churches, use the font for a trough, and shoot at the windows as marks.

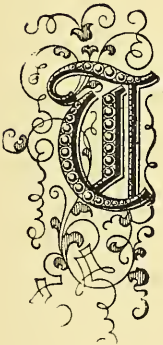
After the battle of Naseby, King Charles was in such distress that he thought he would go to the Scots, remembering that, though he had offended them by trying to make them use the Prayer-book, he had been born among them, and he thought they would prefer him to the English. But when he came, the Scottish army treated him like a prisoner, and showed him very few honors; and at last they gave him up to the English Parliament for a great sum of money.

So Charles was a prisoner to his own subjects. This Parliament is called the Long Parliament, because it sat longer than any other Parliament ever did: indeed it had passed, with the King's consent, a resolution that it could not be dissolved.

CHAPTER XXXV.

DEATH OF CHARLES I.

A.D. 1649-1651.



THE Long Parliament did not wish to have no king, only to make him do what they pleased; and they went on trying whether he would come back to reign according to their notions. He would have given up a great deal, but when they wanted him to declare that there should be no bishops in England he would never consent, for he thought that there could be no real Church without bishops, as our Lord Himself had appointed.

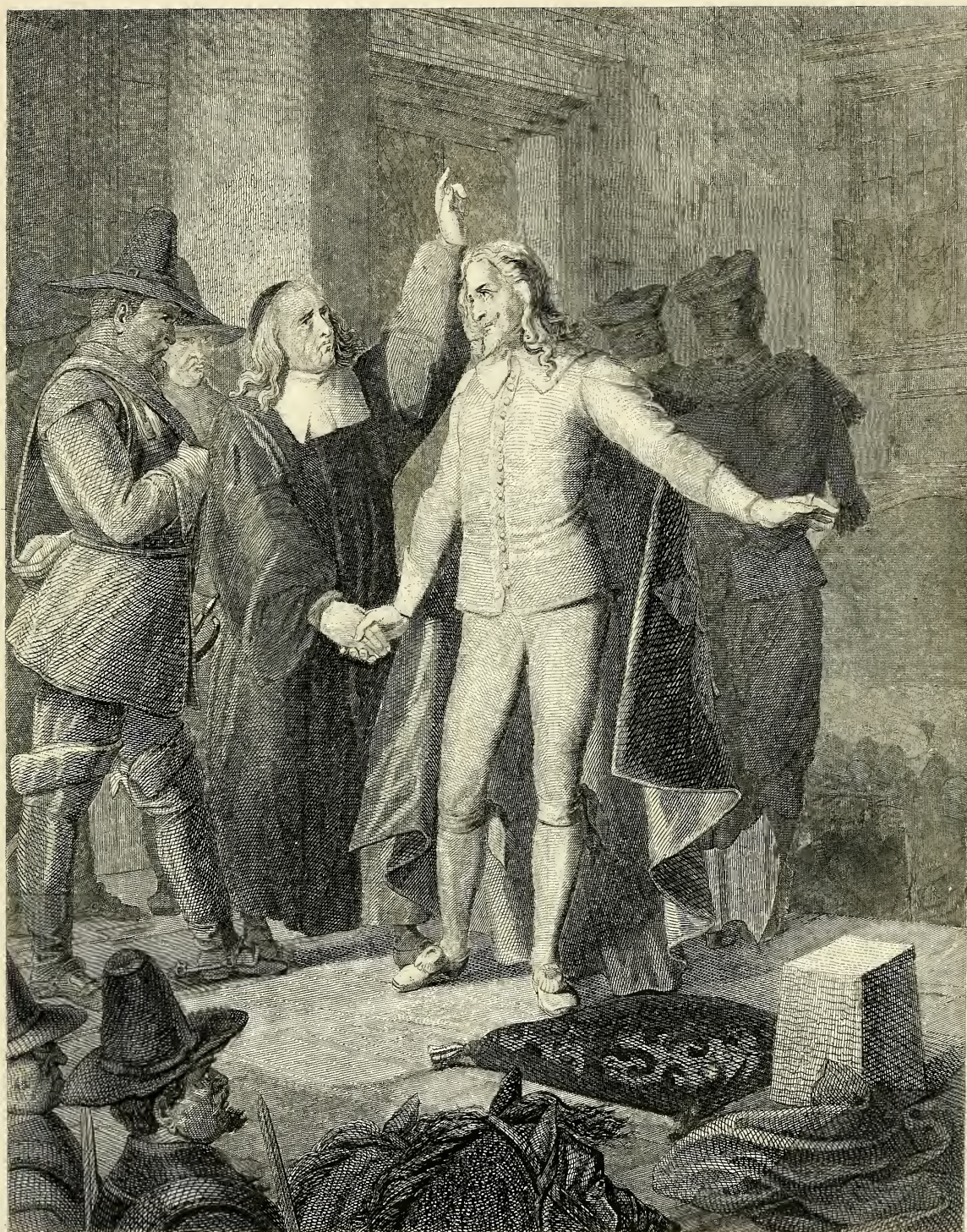
At last, after there had been much debating, and it was plain that it would never come to an end, Oliver Cromwell sent some of his officers to take King Charles into their hands, instead of the persons appointed by Parliament. So the king was prisoner to the army instead of to the Parliament.

Cromwell was a very able man, and he saw that nobody could settle the difficulties about the law and the rights of the people but himself. No one can tell whether he wished to do right or to make himself great; but his heart could not have been set right or he would not have done so terrible an

act as he did. He saw that things never would be settled while the king lived, nor by the Parliament; so he sent one of his officers, named Pryde, to turn out all the members of Parliament who would not do his will, and then the fifty who were left appointed a court of officers and lawyers to try the king. Charles was brought before them; but, as they had no right to try him, he would not say a word in answer to them. Nevertheless, they sentenced him to have his head cut off. He had borne all his troubles in the most meek and patient way, forgiving all his enemies and praying for them: and he was ready to die in the same temper. His queen was in France, and all his children were safe out of England, except his daughter Elizabeth, who was twelve years old, and little Henry, who was five. They were brought to Whitehall Palace for him to see, the night before he was to die. He took the little boy on his knee, and talked a long time to Elizabeth, telling her what books to read and giving her his messages to her mother and brothers; and then he told little Henry to mark what he said, and to mind that he must never be set up as a king while his elder brothers, Charles and James were alive. The little boy said, among his tears, "I will be torn in pieces first." His father kissed and blessed the two children, and left them.

The next day was the 30th of January, 1649. The king was allowed to have Bishop Juxon to read and pray with him, and to give him the holy communion. After that, forgiving his enemies, and praying for them, he was led to the Banqueting House at Whitehall, and out through a window, on to a scaffold hung with black cloth. He said his last prayers, and the executioner cut off his head with one blow, and held it up to the people. He was buried at night, in St. George's Chapel at Windsor, by four faithful noblemen, but they were not allowed to use any service over his grave.

The Scots were so much shocked to find what their selling of their king had come to, that they invited his eldest son, Charles, a young man of nineteen, to come and reign over them, and offered to set him on the English throne again. Young Charles came; but they were so strict that they made his life very dull and weary, since they saw sin in every amusement. However, they kept their promise of marching into England, and some of the English cavaliers joined them; but Oliver Cromwell and his army met them at Worcester, and they were entirely beaten. Young King Charles had to go away with a few gentlemen, and he was so closely followed that they had to put him in charge of some woodmen named Penderel, who lived in Boscobel Forest. They dressed him in a rough leather suit like their own, and when the Roundhead soldiers came to search, he was hidden among the branches of an oak tree above their heads. Afterward, a lady named Jane Lane helped him over another part of his journey, by letting him ride on horseback before her as her servant; but, when she stopped at an inn, he was very near being found out, because he did not know how to turn the



EXECUTION OF CHARLES I.

spit in the kitchen when the cook asked him. However, he got safely to Brighton, which was only a little village then, and a boat took him to France, where his mother was living.

In the meantime, his young sister and brother, Elizabeth and Henry, had been sent to the Isle of Wight, to Carisbrook Castle. Elizabeth was pining away with sorrow, and before long she was found dead, with her cheek resting on her open Bible. After this, little Henry was sent to be with his mother in France.

The eldest daughter, Mary, had been married, just as the war began, to the Prince of Orange, who lived in Holland, and was left a widow with one little son. James, Duke of York, the second brother, had at first been in the keeping of a Parliamentary nobleman, with his brother and sister, in London; but, during a game of hide-and-seek, he crept out of the gardens and met some friends, who dressed him in girls' clothes and took him to a ship in the Thames, which carried him to Holland. Little Henrietta, the youngest, had been left, when only six weeks old, to the care of one of her mother's ladies. When she was nearly three, the lady did not think it safe to keep her any longer in England. So she stained her face and hands brown, with walnut juice, to look like a gipsy, took the child upon her back, and trudged to the coast. Little Henrietta could not speak plain, but she always called herself by a name she meant to be princess, and the lady was obliged to call her Piers, and pretend that she was a little boy, when the poor child grew angry at being treated so differently from usual, and did all she possibly could to make the strangers understand that she was no beggar boy. However, at last she was safe across the sea, and was with her mother at Paris, where the King of France, Queen Henrietta's nephew, was very kind to the poor exiles. The misfortune was, that the queen brought up little Henrietta as a Roman Catholic, and tried to make Henry one also; but he was old enough to be firm to his father's Church, and he went away to his sister in Holland. James, however, did somewhat later become a Roman Catholic; and Charles would have been one, if he had cared enough about religion to do what would have lessened his chance of getting back to England as king. But these two brothers were learning no good at Paris, and were growing careless of the right, and fond of pleasure. James and Henry, after a time, joined the French army, that they might learn the art of war. They were both very brave, but it was sad that when France and England went to war, they should be in the army of the enemies of their country.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

OLIVER CROMWELL.

A.D. 1640-1660.



LIVER Cromwell felt, as has been said, that there was no one who could set matters to rights as he could in England. He had shown that the country could not do without him, if it was to go on without the old government. Not only had he conquered and slain Charles I., and beaten that king's friends and those of his son in Scotland, but he had put down a terrible rising of the Irish, and suppressed them with much more cruelty than he generally showed.

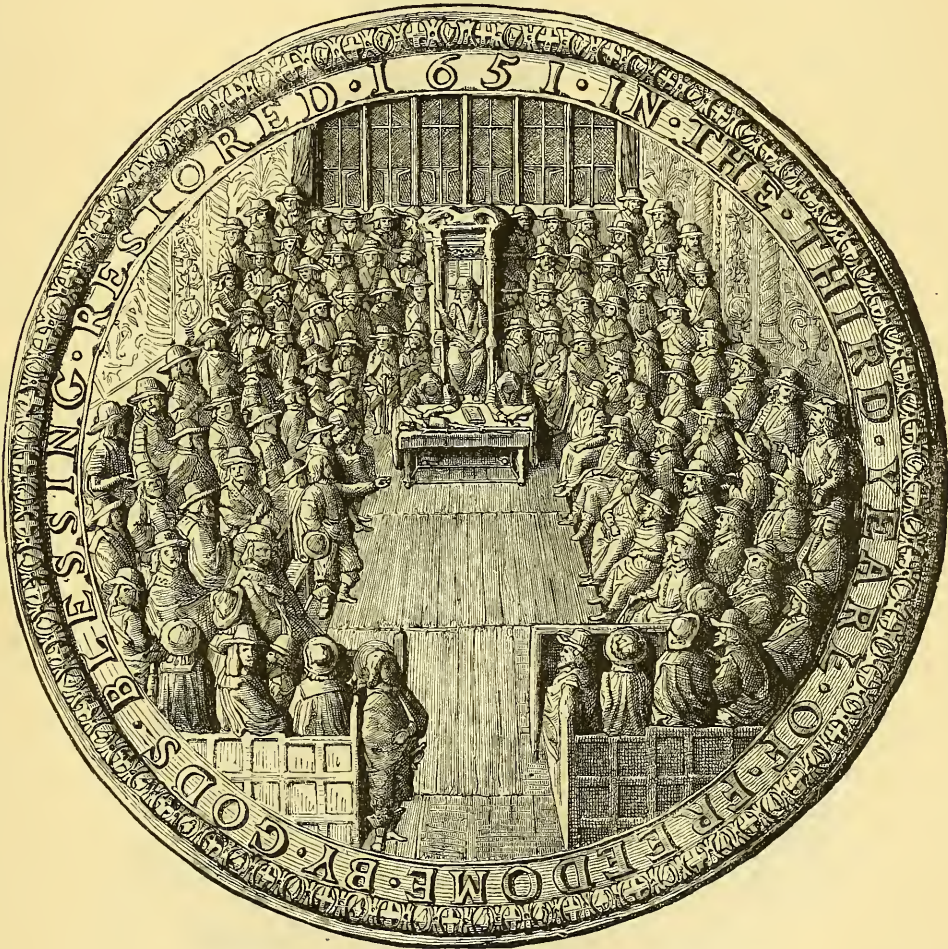
He found that the old Long Parliament did nothing but blunder and talk, so he marched into the House one day with a company of soldiers, and sternly ordered the members all off, calling out, as he pointed to the mace that lay before the Speaker's chair, "Take away that bauble." After that he called together a fresh Parliament; but there were very few members, and those only men who would do as he bade them. The Speaker was a leather-seller named Barebones, so that this is generally known as Barebones' Parliament. By these people he was named Lord Protector of England; and as his soldiers would still do anything for him, he reigned for five years, just as a king might have done, and a good king too.

It is hard to understand how a person can go on doing wrong, and really meaning to do right all the time, and think it is doing God's service; but there have been many people like that, and, as far as we can understand, Oliver Cromwell was one of them. He was a religious man; but he chose to make out his religion from the Bible for himself, though, in the judgment of many good people, he erred greatly in his opinions; and when he felt within himself the understanding how to rule better than king or Parliament, he went on to make himself ruler, thinking he was doing God's work—even though it led him through such sins as making war on the king, and putting him to death at last. He prayed often, and spoke much about religion; but he was very apt to make long speeches, that so confused the people who heard him that they let him have his own way, because they did not know what he was talking about. However, when he wanted to be obeyed, he was sharp and direct enough. He was by



CROWELL DISSOLVING THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

no means a cruel or unmerciful man, and he did not persecute the Cavaliers more than he could help, if he was to keep up his power; though, of course, they suffered a great deal, since they had fines laid upon them, and some forfeited their estates for having resisted the Parliament. Many had to live in Holland or France, because there was no safety for them in England, and their wives went backward and forward to their homes to collect their



THE GREAT SEAL OF ENGLAND (CROMWELL'S TIME).

rents, and obtain something to live upon. The bishops and clergy had all been driven out, and in no church was it allowable to use the Prayer-book; so there used to be secret meetings in rooms, or vaults, or in woods, where the prayers could be used as of old, and the holy sacrament administered.

For five years Cromwell was Lord Protector, but in the year 1658 he died, advising that his son Richard should be chosen Protector in his stead. Richard Cromwell was a kind, amiable gentleman, but not clever or strong

like his father, and he very soon found that to govern England was quite beyond his power; so he gave up, and went to live at his own home again, while the English people gave him the nickname of Tumble-down-Dick.

No one seemed well to know what was to be done next; but General Monk, who was now at the head of the army, thought the best thing



GENERAL MONK.

possible would be to bring back the king. A new Parliament was elected, and sent an invitation to Charles II. to come back again and reign like his forefathers. He accepted it; the fleet was sent to fetch him, and on the 29th of May, 1660, he rode into London between his brothers, James and Henry. The streets were dressed with green boughs, the windows hung with tapestry, and every one showed such intense joy and delight, that the king



Engraved for the Edition by G. E. Perine, N. York

MOLIERE.

said he could not think why he should have stayed away so long, since every one was so glad to see him back again.

But the joy of his return was clouded by the deaths of his sister Mary, the Princess of Orange, and of his brother Henry, who was only just twenty. Mary left a son, William, Prince of Orange, of whom more hereafter.

The bishops were restored, and, as there had been no archbishop since Laud had been beheaded, good Juxon, who had attended King Charles at his death, was made archbishop in his room. The persons who had been put into the parishes to act as clergymen, were obliged to give place to the real original parish priest; but if he were dead, as was often the case, they were told that they might stay, if they would be ordained by the bishops and obey the Prayer-book. Some did so, some made an arrangement for keeping the parsonages, and paying a curate to take the service in church; but those who were the most really in earnest gave up everything, and were turned out—but only as they had turned out the real clergymen ten or twelve years before.

All Oliver Cromwell's army was broken up, and the men sent to their homes, except one regiment which came from Coldstream in Scotland. These would not disband, and when Charles II. heard it, he said he would take them as his guards. This was the beginning of there being always a regular army of men, whose whole business it is to be soldiers, instead of any man being called from his work when he is wanted.

Charles II. promised pardon to all the rebels, but he did try and execute all who had been actually concerned in condemning his father to death.



CHAPTER XXXVII.

CHARLES II.

A.D. 1660-1685.



It is sad to have to say that, after all his troubles, Charles II. disappointed everybody. Some of these disappointments could not be helped, but others were his own fault. The Puritan party thought, after they had brought him home again, he should have been more favorable to them, and grumbled at the restoration of the clergymen and of the Prayer-book. The Cavaliers thought that, after all they had gone through for him and his father, he ought to have rewarded them more; but he said truly enough, that if he had made a nobleman of every one who had deserved well of him, no place but Salisbury Plain would have been big enough for the House of Lords to meet upon. Then those gentlemen who had got into debt to raise soldiers for the king's service, and had paid fines, or had to sell their estates, felt it hard not to have them again; but when a Roundhead gentleman had honestly bought the property, it would have been still more unjust to turn him out. These two old names of Cavaliers and Roundheads began to turn into two others even more absurd. The Cavalier set came to be called Tories, an Irish name for a robber, and the Puritans got the Scotch name of Whigs, which means butter-milk.

It would have taken a very strong, wise, and good man to deal rightly with two such different sets of people; but though Charles II. was a very clever man, he was neither wise nor good. He could not bear to vex himself, nor anybody else; and, rather than be teased, would grant almost anything that was asked of him. One of his witty courtiers once wrote upon his bedroom door—

"Here lies our sovereign lord, the king,
Whose word no man relies on;
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."

He was so bright and lively, and made such droll, good-natured answers, that every one liked him who came near him; but he had no steady principle, only to stand easy with everybody, and keep as much power for him-



self as he could without giving offence. He loved pleasure much better than duty, and kept about him a set of people who amused him, but were a disgrace to his court. They even took money from the French king to persuade Charles against helping the Dutch in their war against the French. The Dutch went to war with the English upon this, and there were many terrible sea-fights, in which James, Duke of York, the king's brother, showed himself a good and brave sailor.

The year 1665 is remembered as that in which there was a dreadful sickness in London, called the plague. People died of it often after a very short illness, and it was so infectious that it was difficult to escape it. When a person in a house was found to have it, the door was fastened up and marked with a red cross in chalk, and no one was allowed to go out or in; food was set down outside to be fetched in, and carts came round to take away the dead, who were all buried together in long ditches. The plague was worse in the summer and autumn; as winter came on more recovered and fewer sickened, and at last this frightful sickness was ended; and, by God's good mercy, it has never since that year come to London.



THE GREAT LONDON FIRE.

The next year, 1666, there was a fire in London, which burnt down whole streets, with their churches, and even destroyed St. Paul's Cathedral. Perhaps it did good by burning down the dirty old houses and narrow streets where the plague might have lingered, but it was a fearful misfortune. It was only stopped at last by blowing up a space by gunpowder all round it, so that the flames might have no way to pass on. The king and his brother came and were very helpful in giving orders about this, and in finding shelter for the many poor, homeless people.

There was a good deal of disturbance in Scotland when the king wanted to bring back the bishops and the Prayer-book. Many of the Scots would not go to church, and met on hills and moors to have their prayers in their own way. Soldiers were sent to disperse them, and there was much fierce, bitter feeling. Archbishop Sharpe was dragged out of his carriage and

killed, and then there was a civil war, in which the king's men prevailed; but the Whigs were harshly treated, and there was great discontent.

The country was much troubled because the king and queen had no children: and the Duke of York was a Roman Catholic. A strange story was got up that there was what was called a popish plot for killing the king, and putting James on the throne. Charles himself laughed at it, for he knew every one liked him and disliked his brother: "No one would kill me to make you king, James," he said; but in his easy, selfish way, when he found that all the country believed in it, and wanted to have the men they fancied guilty put to death, he did not try to save their lives.

Soon after this false plot, there was a real one called the Rye-house Plot. Long ago, the king had pretended to marry a girl named Lucy Waters, and they had a son whom he had made Duke of Monmouth, but who could not reign because there had been no right marriage. However, Lord Russell and some other gentlemen, who ought to have known better, so hated the idea of the Duke of York being king, that they joined in the Rye-house Plot for killing the duke, and forcing the king to make Monmouth his heir. Some of the worsers sort, who had joined them, even meant to shoot Charles and James both together, on the way to the Newmarket races. However, the plot was found out, and the leaders were put to death. Lord Russell's wife, Lady Rachel, sat by him all the time of his trial, and was his great comfort to the last. Monmouth was pardoned, but fled away to Holland.

The best thing to be said of Charles II. was that he made good men bishops, and he never was angry when they spoke out boldly about his wicked ways; but then, he never tried to leave them off, and he spent the very last Sunday of his life among his bad companions, playing at cards and listening to idle songs. Just after this came a stroke of apoplexy, and, while he lay dying on his bed, he sent for a Roman Catholic priest, and was received into the Church of Rome, in which he had really believed most of his life—though he had never dared own it, for fear of losing his crown. So, as he was living a lie, of course the fruits showed themselves in his selfish, wasted life.

It was in this reign that two grand books were written. John Milton, a blind scholar and poet, who, before he lost his sight, had been Oliver Cromwell's secretary, wrote his *Paradise Lost*, or rather dictated it to his daughters; and John Bunyan, a tinker, who had been a Puritan preacher, wrote the *Pilgrim's Progress*.



CHAPTER XXXVIII.

JAMES II.

A.D. 1685-1688.



JAMES II. had, at least, been honest in openly joining the Church in which he believed; but the people disliked and distrusted him, and he had not the graces of his brother to gain their hearts with, but was grave, sad, and stern.

The Duke of Monmouth came across from Holland, and was proclaimed king in his uncle's stead at Exeter. Many people in the West of England joined him, and at Taunton, in Somersetshire, he was received by rows of little girls standing by the gate in white frocks, strewing flowers before him. But at Sedgemoor he was met by the army, and his friends were routed; he himself fled away, and at last was caught hiding in a ditch, dressed in a laborer's smock frock, and with his pockets full of peas from the fields. He was taken to London, tried, and executed. He did not deserve much pity, but James ought not to have let the people who had favored him be cruelly treated. Sir George Jeffreys, the chief justice, was sent to try all who had been concerned, from Winchester to Exeter; and he hung so many, and treated all so savagely, that his progress was called the Bloody Assize. Even the poor little maids at Taunton were thrown into a horrible, dirty jail, and only released on their parents paying a heavy sum of money for them.

This was a bad beginning for James's reign: and the English grew more angry and suspicious when they saw that he favored Roman Catholics more than any one else, and even put them into places that only clergymen of the Church of England could fill. Then he put forth a decree, declaring that a person might be chosen to any office in the State, whether he were a member of the English Church or no; and he commanded that every clergyman should read it from his pulpit on Sunday mornings. Archbishop Sancroft did not think it a right thing for clergymen to read, and he and six more bishops presented a petition to the king against being obliged to read it. One of these was Thomas Ken, Bishop of Bath and Wells, who wrote the morning hymn, "Awake, my soul, and with the sun," and the evening hymn, "All praise to Thee, my God, this night." Instead of listening to their petition, the king had all the seven bishops sent to the Tower, and tried for libel—that is, for malicious writing. All England was full of anxiety, and

when at last the jury gave a verdict of "not guilty," the whole of London rang with shouts of joy, and the soldiers in their camp shouted still louder.

This might have been a warning to the king: for he had thought that, as he paid the army, they were all on his side, and would make the people bear whatever he pleased. The chief comfort people had was in thinking their troubles would only last during his reign: for his first wife, an Englishwoman, had only left him two daughters, Mary and Anne, and Mary was married to her cousin, William, Prince of Orange, who was a great enemy of the King of France and of the Pope; and Anne's husband, Prince George,



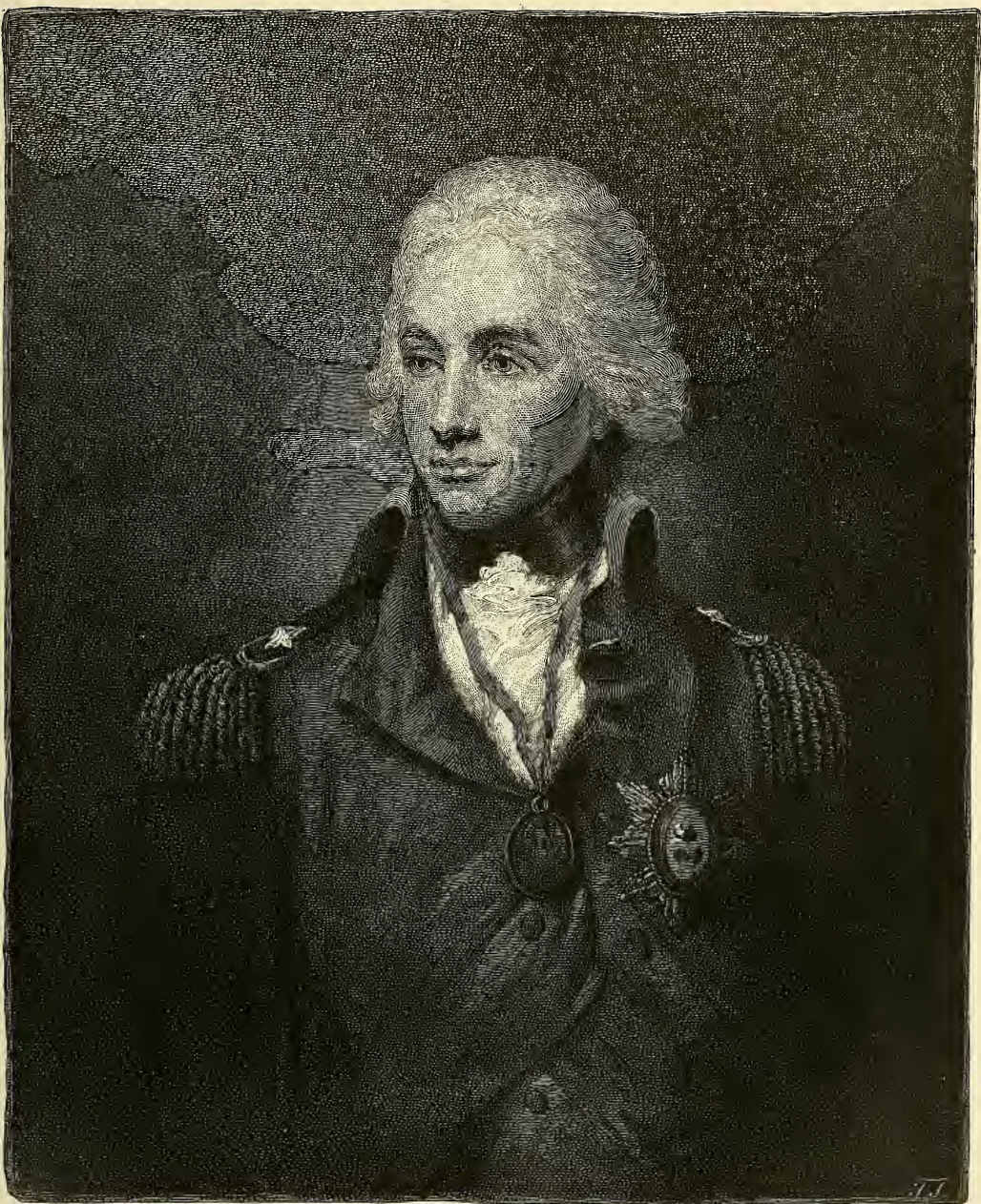
DUKE OF MONMOUTH.

brother to the King of Denmark, was a Protestant. He was a dull man, and people laughed at him—because, whenever he heard any news, he never said anything but "*Est-il possible?*" Is it possible? But he had a little son, of whom there was much hope.

But James had married again, Mary Beatrice d'Este, an Italian princess; and, though none of her babies had lived before, at last she had a little son who was healthy and life-like, and who was christened James. Poor little boy! Every one was so angry and disappointed that he should have come into the world at all, that a story was put about that he was not the son of the king and queen, but a strange baby who had been carried into the



THE PRINCE OF ORANGE AT TOULOUSE.



PAINTED BY LEMUEL F. ABBOTT.

IN NATIONAL PORTRAIT GALLERY, LONDON.

ENGRAVED BY T. JOHNSON.

LORD NELSON.

queen's room in a warming-pan, because James was resolved to prevent Mary and William from reigning.

Only silly people could believe such a story as this; but all the Whigs, and most of the Tories, thought in earnest that it was a sad thing for the country to have a young heir to the throne brought up to be a Roman Catholic, and to think it right to treat his subjects as James was treating them. Some would have been patient, and have believed that God would bring it right, but others, who had never thought much of the rights of kings and duties of subjects, were resolved to put a stop to the evils they expected; and, knowing what was the state of people's minds, William of Orange set forth from Holland, and landed at Torbay. Crowds of people came to meet him, and to call on him to deliver them. It was only three years since the Bloody Assize, and they had not forgotten it in those parts. King James heard that one person after another had gone to the Prince of Orange, and he thought it not safe for his wife and child to be any longer in England. So, quietly, one night he put them in charge of a French nobleman who had been visiting him, and who took them to the Thames, where, after waiting in the dark under a church wall, he brought them a boat, and they reached a ship which took them safely to France.

King James stayed a little longer. He did not mind when he heard that Prince George of Denmark had gone to the Prince of Orange, but only laughed, and said "*Est-il possible?*" but when he heard his daughter Anne, to whom he had always been kind, was gone too, the tears came into his eyes, and he said, "God help me, my own children are deserting me." He would have put himself at the head of the army, but he found that if he did so, he was likely to be made prisoner and carried to William. So he disguised himself and set off for France; but at Faversham, some people who took him for a Roman Catholic priest seized him, and he was sent back to London. However, as there was nothing the Prince of Orange wished so little as to keep him in captivity, he was allowed to escape again, and this time he safely reached France, where he was very kindly welcomed, and had the palace of St. Germain given him for a dwelling-place.

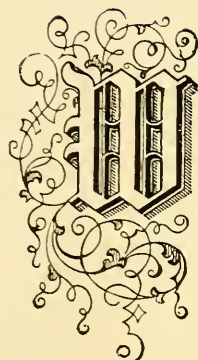
It was on the 4th of November, 1688, that William landed, and the change that now took place is commonly called the English Revolution.

We must think of the gentlemen, during these reigns, as going about in very fine laced and ruffled coats, and the most enormous wigs. The Round-heads had short hair and the Cavaliers long: so people were ashamed to have short hair, and wore wigs to hide it if it would not grow, till everybody came to have shaven heads, and monstrous wigs in great curls on their shoulders; and even little boys' hair was made to look as like a wig as possible. The barber had the wig every morning to fresh curl, and make it white with hair powder, so that every one might look like an old man, with a huge quantity of white hair.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

A.D. 1679-1702.



HEN James II. proved to be entirely gone, the Parliament agreed to offer the crown to William of Orange—the next heir after James's children—and Mary, his wife, James's eldest daughter; but not until there had been new conditions made, which would prevent the kings from ever being so powerful again as they had been since the time of Henry VII. Remember, Magna Carta, under King John, gave the power to the nobles. They lost it by the wars of the Roses, and the Tudor kings gained it; but the Stewart kings could not keep it, and the House of Commons became the strongest power in the kingdom, by the Revolution of 1688. The House of Commons is made up of persons chosen—whenever there is a general election—by the men who have a certain amount of property in each county and large town. There must be a fresh election, or choosing, again every seven years; also, whenever the sovereign dies; and the sovereign can dissolve the Parliament—that is, break it up—and have a fresh election whenever it is thought right. But above the House of Commons stands the House of Lords, or Peers. These are not chosen, but the eldest son, or next heir of each lord, succeeds to his seat upon his death; and fresh peerages are given as rewards to great generals, great lawyers, or people who have deserved well of their country. When a law has to be made, it has first to be agreed to by a majority—that is, the larger number—of the Commons, then by a majority of the Lords, and lastly, by the king or queen. The sovereign's council are called the ministers, and if the Houses of Parliament do not approve of their way of carrying on the government they vote against their proposals, and this generally makes them resign, that others may be chosen in their place who may please the country better.

This arrangement has gone on ever since William and Mary came in. However, James II. still had many friends, only they had been out of reach at the first alarm. The Latin word for James is Jacobus, and, therefore, they were called Jacobites. All Roman Catholics were, of course, Jacobites; and there were other persons who, though grieved at the king's conduct, did not think it right to rise against him and drive him away; and, having

taken an oath to obey him, held that it would be wrong to swear obedience to any one else while he was alive. Archbishop Sancroft was one of these. He thought it wrong in the new queen, Mary, to consent to take her father's place; and when she sent to ask his blessing, he told her to ask her father's first, as, without that, his own would do her little good. Neither he nor Bishop Ken, and some other bishops, nor a good many more of the clergy, would take the oaths to William, or put his name instead of that of James in the prayers at church. They rather chose to be turned out of their



KING JAMES AT THE BATTLE OF THE BOYNE.

bishoprics and parishes, and to live in poverty. They were called the non-jurors, or not-swearers.

Louis, King of France, tried to send James back, and gave him the service of his fleet; but it was beaten by Admiral Russell, off Cape La Hogue. Poor James could not help crying out, "See my brave English sailors! One of Charles's old officers, Lord Dundee, raised an army of Scots in James's favor, but he was killed just as he had won the battle of Killiecrankie; and there was no one to take up the cause just then, and the Scotch Whigs were glad of the change.

Most of James's friends, the Roman Catholics, were in Ireland, and Louis lent him an army with which to go thither and try to win his crown back. He got on pretty well in the South, but in the North—where Oliver Crom-

well had given lands to many of his old soldiers—he met with much more resistance. At Londonderry, the apprentice boys shut the gates of the town and barred them against him. A clergyman named George Walker took the command of the city, and held it out for a hundred and five days against him, till every one was nearly starved to death—and at last help came from England. William himself came to Ireland, and the father and son-in-law met in battle on the banks of the Boyne on the 1st of July, 1690. James was routed; and large numbers of the Irish Protestants have ever since kept the 1st of July as a great holiday—commemorating the victory by wearing orange lilies and orange-colored scarfs.

James was soon obliged to leave Ireland, and his friends there were severely punished. In the meantime, William was fighting the French in Holland—as he had done nearly all his life—while Mary governed the kingdom at home. She was a handsome, stately lady, and was much respected; and there was great grief when she died of the small-pox, never having had any children. It was settled upon this that William should go on reigning as long as he lived, and then that Princess Anne should be queen; and if she left no children, that the next after her should be the youngest daughter of Elizabeth, daughter of James I. Her name was Sophia, and she was married to Ernest of Brunswick, Elector of Hanover. It was also settled that no Roman Catholic, nor even any one who married a Roman Catholic, could ever be on the English throne.

Most of the Tories disliked this Act of Settlement; and nobody had much love for King William, who was a thin, spare man, with a large, hooked nose, and very rough, sharp manners—perhaps the more sharp because he was never in good health, and suffered terribly from the asthma. However, he managed to keep all the countries under him in good order, and he was very active, and always at war with the French. Towards the end of his reign a fresh quarrel began, in which all Europe took part. The King of Spain died without children, and the question was who should reign after him. The King of France had married one sister of this king, and the Emperor of Germany was the son of her aunt. One wanted to make his grandson king of Spain, the other his son, and so there was a great war. William III. took part against the French—as he had always been their enemy; but just as the war was going to begin, as he was riding near his palace of Hampton Court, his horse trod into a mole-hill, and he fell, breaking his collar bone: and this hurt his weak chest so much that he died in a few days, in the year 1702. The Jacobites were very glad to be rid of him, and used to drink the health of the “little gentleman in a black velvet coat,” meaning the mole which had caused his death.



TABLE SERVICE OF A LADY OF QUALITY.

Fac-simile of a miniature from the *Romance of Renaud de Montauban*, a ms. of fifteenth century.



CHAPTER XL.

ANNE.

A.D. 1702-1714.



QUEEN Anne, the second daughter of James II., began to reign on the death of William III. She was a well-meaning woman, but very weak and silly; and any person who knew how to manage her could make her have no will of her own. The person who had always had such power over her was Sarah Jennings, a lady in her train, who had married an officer named John Churchill. As this gentleman had risen in the army, he proved to be one of the most able generals who ever lived. He was made a peer, and, step by step came to be Duke of Marlborough. It was he and his wife who, being Whigs, had persuaded Anne to desert her father; and, now she was queen, she did just as they pleased. The duchess was mistress of the robes, and more queen at home than Anne was; and the duke commanded the army which was sent to fight against the French, to decide who should be king of Spain. An expedition was sent to Spain, which gained the rock of Gibraltar, and this has been kept by the English ever since.

Never were there greater victories than were gained by the English and German forces together, under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy, who commanded the Emperor's armies. The first and greatest battle of them all was fought at Blenheim, in Bavaria, when the French were totally defeated, with great loss. Marlborough was rewarded by the queen and nation buying an estate for him, which was called Blenheim, where woods were planted so as to imitate the position of his army before the battle, and a grand house built and filled with pictures recording his adventures. The other battles were all in the Low Countries—at Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. The city of Lisle was taken after a long siege, and not a summer went by without tidings coming of some great victory, and the queen going in a state coach to St. Paul's Cathedral to return thanks for it.

But all this glory of her husband made the Duchess of Marlborough more and more proud and overbearing. She thought the queen could not do without her, and so she left off taking any trouble to please her; nay, she would sometimes scold her more rudely than any real lady would do to

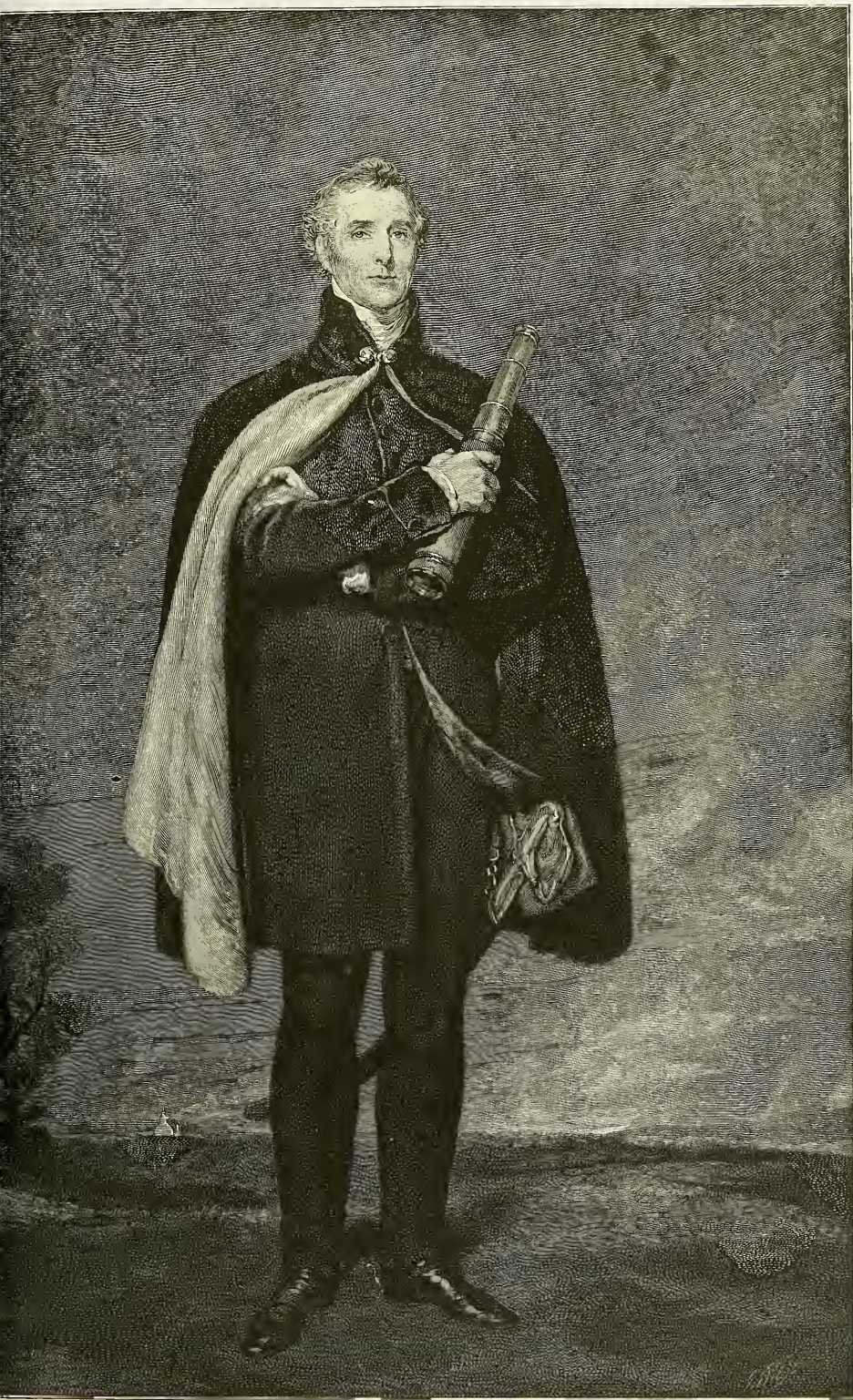
any woman, however much below her in rank. Sometimes she brought the poor queen to tears; and on the day on which Anne went in state to St. Paul's, to return thanks for the victory of Oudenarde, she was seen to be crying all the way from St. James's Palace in her coach, with the six cream-



QUEEN ANNE.

colored horses, because the duchess had been scolding her for putting on her jewels in the way she liked best, instead of in the duchess's way.

Now, Duchess Sarah had brought to the palace, to help to wait on the queen, a poor cousin of her own, named Abigail Masham, a much more smooth and gentle person, but rather deceitful. When the mistress of the robes was unkind and insolent, the queen used to complain to Mrs. Masham;



FIELD-MARSHAL THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

(PAINTED BY SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE, P. R. A. ENGRAVED ON WOOD BY R. G. TIETZE, BY PERMISSION OF PAUL AND DOMINIC COLNAGHI, LONDON, AFTER
THE ENGRAVING BY SAMUEL COUSINS, A. R. A.)

and by and by Abigail told her how to get free. There was a gentleman, well known to Mrs. Masham—Mr. Harley, a member of Parliament and a Tory, and she brought him in by the back-stairs to see the queen, without the duchess knowing it. He undertook, if the queen would stand by him, to be her minister, and to turn out the Churchills and their Whig friends, send away the tyrant duchess, and make peace, so that the duke might not be wanted any more. In fact, the war had gone on quite long enough: the power of the King of France was broken, and he was an old man, whom it was cruel to press further; but this was not what Anne cared about so much as getting free of the duchess. There was great anger and indignation among all the Whigs at the breaking off the war in the midst of so much glory; and, besides, the nation did not keep its engagements to the others with whom it had allied itself. Marlborough himself was not treated as a man deserved who had won so much honor for his country, and he did not keep his health many years after his fall. Once, when he felt his mind getting weak, he looked up at his own picture at Blenheim, taken when he was one of the handsomest, most able, and active men in Europe, and said sadly, “Ah! that *was* a man.”

Mr. Harley was made Earl of Oxford, and managed the queen's affairs for her. He and the Tories

did not at all like the notion of the German family of Brunswick—Sophia and her son George—who were to reign next, and they allowed the queen to look toward her own family a little more. Her father had died in exile, but there remained the young brother whom she had disowned, and whom the French and the Jacobites called King James III. If he would have joined the English Church, Anne would have gladly invited him, and many of the English would have owned him as the right king; but he was too honest to give up his faith, and the queen could do nothing for him.

Till her time the Scots—though since James I. they had been under the same king as England—had had a separate Parliament, Lords and Commons, who sat at Edinburgh; but in the reign of Queen Anne the Scottish Parliament was united to the English one, and the members of it had come to



THE DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

Westminster. This made many Scotsmen so angry that they became Jacobites; but as everybody knew that the queen was a gentle, old, well-meaning lady, nobody wished to disturb her, and all was quiet as long as she lived, so that her reign was an unusually tranquil one at home, though there were such splendid victories abroad. It was a time, too, when there were almost as many able writers as in Queen Elizabeth's time. The two books written at that day, which are the best known, are Robinson Crusoe, written by Daniel Defoe, and Alexander Pope's translation of Homer's *Iliad*.

Anne's Tory friends did not make her happy; they used to quarrel among themselves and frightened her: and after one of their disputes she had a stroke, and soon died of it, in the year 1714.

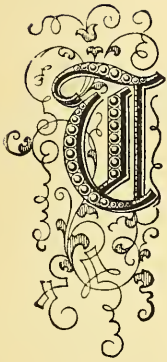
It was during Anne's reign that it became the fashion to drink tea and coffee. One was brought from China, and the other from Arabia, not very long before, and they were very dear indeed. The ladies used to drink tea out of little cups of egg-shell china, and the clever gentlemen, who were called the wits, used to meet and talk at coffee-houses, and read newspapers, and discuss plays and poems; also, the first magazine was then begun. It was called "*The Spectator*," and was managed by Mr. Addison. It came out once a week, and laughed at or blamed many of the foolish and mischievous habits of the time. Indeed it did much to draw people out of the bad ways that had come in with Charles II.



CHAPTER XLI.

GEORGE I.

A.D. 1714-1725.



THE Electress Sophia, who had always desired to be queen of England, had died a few months before Queen Anne; and her son George, who liked his own German home much better than the trouble of reigning in a strange country, was in no hurry to come, and waited to see whether the English would not prefer the young James Stewart. But as no James arrived, George set off, rather unwillingly, and was received in London in a dull kind of way. He hardly knew any English, and was obliged sometimes to talk bad Latin and sometimes French, when he consulted with his ministers. He did not bring a queen with him, for he had quarreled with his wife, and shut her up in a castle in Germany; but he had a son, also named George, who had a very clever, handsome wife—Caroline of Anspach, a German princess; but the king was jealous of them, and generally made them live abroad.

Just when it was too late, and George I. had thoroughly settled into his kingdom, the Jacobites in the North of England and in Scotland began to make a stir, and invited James Stewart over to try to gain the kingdom. The Jacobites used to call him James III., but the Whigs called him the Pretender; and the Tories used, by way of a middle course, to call him the Chevalier—the French word for a knight, as that he certainly was, whether he were king or pretender. A white rose was the Jacobite mark, and the Whigs still held to the orange lily and orange ribbon, for the sake of William of Orange.

The Jacobite rising did not come to any good. Two battles were fought between the king's troops and the Jacobites—one in England and the other in Scotland—on the very same day. The Scottish one was at Sheriff-muir and was so doubtful, that the old Scottish song about it ran thus—

Some say that we won,
And some say that they won,
Some say that none won
At a', man ;
But of one thing I'm sure,
That at Sheriff-muir
A battle there was,
Which I saw, man.

And we ran, and they ran,
And they ran, and we ran,
And we ran, and they ran—
Awa, man.

The English one was at Preston, and in it the Jacobites were all defeated and made prisoners; so that when their friend the Chevalier landed in Scotland, he found that nothing could be done, and had to go back again to Italy, where he generally lived, under the Pope's protection; and where he married a Polish princess, and had two sons, whom he named Charles Edward and Henry.

This rising of the Jacobites took place in the year 1715, and is, therefore, generally called the Rebellion of the Fifteen. The chief noblemen who were engaged in it were taken to London to be tried. Three were beheaded; one was saved upon his wife's petition; and one, the Earl of Nithsdale, by the cleverness of his wife. She was allowed to go and see him in the Tower, and she took a tall lady in with her, who contrived to wear a double set of outer garments. The friend went away, after a time; and then, after waiting till the guard was changed, Lady Nithsdale dressed her husband in the clothes that had been brought in: and he, too, went away, with the hood over his face and a handkerchief up to his eyes, so that the guard might take him for the other lady, crying bitterly at parting with the earl. The wife, meantime, remained for some time, talking and walking up and down as heavily as she could, till the time came when she would naturally be obliged to leave him—when, as she passed by his servant, she told him that "My lord would not be ready for the candles just yet,"—and then left the Tower, and went to a little lodging in a back street, where she found her husband, and where they both lay hid while the search for Lord Nithsdale was going on, and where they heard the knell tolling when his friends, the other lords, were being led out to have their heads cut off. Afterward, they made their escape to France, where most of the Jacobites who had been concerned in the rising were living, as best they could, on small means—and some of them by becoming soldiers of the King of France.

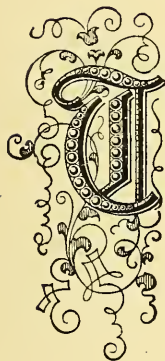
England was prosperous in the time of George I., and the possessions of the country in India were growing, from a merchant's factory here and there, to large lands and towns. But the English never liked King George, nor did he like them; and he generally spent his time in his own native country of Hanover. He was taking a drive there in his coach, when a letter was thrown in at the window. As he was reading it, a sudden stroke of apoplexy came on, and he died in a few hours' time. No one ever knew what was in the letter, but some thought it was a letter reproaching him with his cruelty to his poor wife, who had died in her prison about eight months before. He died in the year 1725.

Gentlemen were leaving off full-bottomed wigs now, and wearing smaller ones; and younger men had their own hair powdered, and tied up with ribbon in a long tail behind, called a queue. Ladies powdered their hair, and raised it to an immense height, and also wore monstrous hoops, long ruffles, and high-heeled shoes. Another odd fashion was that ladies put black patches on their faces, thinking they made them look handsomer. Both ladies and gentlemen took snuff, and carried beautiful snuff-boxes.

CHAPTER XLII.

GEORGE II.

A.D. 1725-1760.



THE reign of George II. was a very warlike one. Indeed he was the last king of England who ever was personally in a battle; and curiously enough, this battle—that of Fontenoy—was the last that a king of France was also present in. It was, however, not a very interesting battle, and it was not clear who really won it, nor are the wars of this time very easy to understand.

The battle of Fontenoy was fought in the course of a great war to decide who should be emperor of Germany, in which France and England took different sides; and this made Charles Edward Stewart, the eldest son of James, think it a good moment for trying once again to get back the crown of his forefathers. He was a fine-looking young man, with winning manners, and a great deal more spirit than his father: and when he landed in Scotland with a very few followers, one Highland gentleman after another was so delighted with him that they all brought their clans to join him, and he was at the head of quite a large force, with which he took possession of the town of Edinburgh; but he never could take the castle. The English army was most of it away fighting in Germany, and the soldiers who met him at Prestonpans, close to Edinburgh, were not well managed, and were easily beaten by the Highlanders. Then he marched straight on into England: and there was great terror, for the Highlanders—with their plaids, long swords, and strange language—were thought to be all savage robbers, and the Londoners expected to have every house and shop ruined and themselves murdered: though on the whole the Highlanders behaved very well. They would probably have really entered Lon-

don if they had gone on, and reached it before the army could come home, but they grew discontented and frightened at being so far away from their own hills; and at Derby, Charles Edward was obliged to let them turn back to Scotland.

The English army had come back by this time, and the Scots were followed closely, getting more sad and forlorn, and losing men in every day's march, till at last, after they had reached Scotland again, they made a stand against the English under the king's second son, William, Duke of Cumber-



CHARLES EDWARD.

land, at the heath of Culloden. There they were entirely routed, and the prince had to fly, and hide himself in strange places and disguises, much as his great uncle, Charles II., had done before him. A young lady named Flora Macdonald took him from one of the Western Isles to another in a boat as her Irish maid, Betty Bourke; and, at another time, he was hid in a sort of bower, called the cage, woven of branches of trees on a hill side, where he lived with three Highlanders, who used to go out by turns to get food. One of them once brought him a piece of ginger-bread as a treat—for they loved him heartily for being patient, cheerful, and thankful for all they did for him; and when at last he found a way of reaching France, and shook

hands with them on bidding them farewell, one of them tied up his right hand, and vowed that no meaner person should ever touch it.

His friends suffered as much as he did. The Duke of Cumberland and his soldiers cruelly punished all the places where he had been received, and all the gentlemen who had supported him were, if they were taken, tried and put to death as traitors—mostly at Carlisle. This, which was called the Rebellion of the Forty-five—because it happened in the year 1745—was the last rising in favor of the Stewarts. Neither Charles Edward nor his brother Henry had any children, and so the family came to an end.

The Empress Maria Theresa, of Germany, had a long war with Frederick, King of Prussia, who was nephew to George II., and a very clever and brave man, who made his little kingdom of Prussia very warlike and brave. But he was not a very good man, and these were sad times among the great people, for few of them thought much about being good: and there were clever Frenchmen who laughed at all religion. You know one of the Psalms says, "The fool hath said in his heart, There is no God." There were a great many such fools at that time, and their ways, together with the selfishness of the nobles, soon brought terrible times to France and all the countries round.

The wars under George II. were by sea as well as by land: and, likewise, in the distant countries where Englishmen, on the one hand, and Frenchmen, on the other, had made those new homes that we call colonies. In North America, both English and French had large settlements; and when the kings at home were at war, there were likewise battles in these distant parts, and the wild Red Indians were stirred up to take part with the one side or the other. They used to attack the homes of the settlers, burn them, torment and kill the men, and keep the children to bring up among their own. The English had, in general, the advantage, especially in Canada, where the brave young General Wolfe led an attack on the very early morning, to the Heights of Abraham, close to the town of Quebec. He was struck down by a shot early in the fight, and lay on the ground with a few officers round him. "They run, they run!" he heard them cry. "Who run?" he asked. "The French run." "Then I die happy," he said; and it was by this battle that England won Lower Canada, with many French inhabitants, whose descendants still speak their old language.

In the East Indies, too, there was much fighting. The English and French both had merchants there; and these had native soldiers to guard them, and made friends with the native princes. When these princes quarreled they helped them, and so obtained a larger footing. But in this reign the English power was nearly ended in a very sad way. A native Indian came suddenly down on Calcutta. Many English got on board the ships, but those who could not—one hundred and forty-six in number—were shut

up all night in a small room, in the hottest time of the year, and they were so crushed together and suffocated by the heat that, when the morning came, there were only twenty-three of them alive. This dreadful place was known as the Black Hole of Calcutta. The next year Calcutta was won back again; and the English, under Colonel Clive, gained so much ground that the French had no power left in India, and the English could go on obtaining more and more land, riches, and power.

George II. had lost his eldest son, Frederick, Prince of Wales, and his lively and clever wife, Queen Caroline, many years before his death. His chief ministers were, first, Sir Robert Walpole, and afterwards the Earl of Chatham—able men, who knew how to manage the country through all these wars. The king died at last, quite suddenly, when sixty-eight years old, in the year 1760.

CHAPTER XLIII.

GEORGE III.

A.D. 1760–1785.



AFTER George II. reigned his grandson, George III., the son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, who had died before his father. The Princess of Wales was a good woman, who tried to bring up her children well; and George III. was a dutiful son to her, and a good, faithful man—always caring more to do right than for anything else. He had been born in England, and did not feel as if Hanover were his home, as his father and grandfather had done, but loved England, and English people, and ways. When he was at Windsor, he used to ride or walk about like a country squire, and he had a ruddy, hearty face and manner, that made him sometimes be called Farmer George; and he had an odd way of saying “What? what?” when he was spoken to, which made him be laughed at; but he was as good and true as any man who ever lived: and when he thought a thing was right, he was as firm as a rock in holding to it. He married a German princess named Charlotte, and they did their very utmost to make all those about them good. They had a very large family—no less than fourteen children—and it was long remembered what a beautiful sight it was when, after church on Sunday, the king and queen and their children used to walk up and down the stately terrace at

Windsor Castle, with a band playing, and every one who was respectably dressed allowed to come and look at them.

Just after George III. came to the crown, a great war broke out in the English colonies in America. A new tax had been made. A tax means the money that has to be given to the Government of a country to pay the judges and their officers, the soldiers and the sailors, to keep up ships and buy weapons, and do all that is wanted to protect us and keep us in order. Taxes are sometimes made by calling on everybody to pay money in proportion to what they have—say threepence for every hundred pounds; sometimes they are made by putting what is called a duty on something that is bought and sold—making it sell for more than its natural price—so



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

that the Government gets the money above the right cost. This is generally done with things that people could live without, and had better not buy too much of—such as spirits, tobacco, and hair-powder. And as tea was still a new thing in England, which only fine ladies drank, it was thought useless, and there was a heavy duty laid upon it when the king wanted money. Now, the Americans got their tea straight from China, and thought it was unfair that they should pay tax on it. So, though they used it much more than the English then did, they gave it up, threw whole ship-loads of it into the harbor at Boston, and resisted the soldiers. A gentleman named George Washington took the command, and they declared they would fight for freedom from the mother country. The French were beginning to think freedom was a fine thing, and at first a few French gentlemen came over to fight

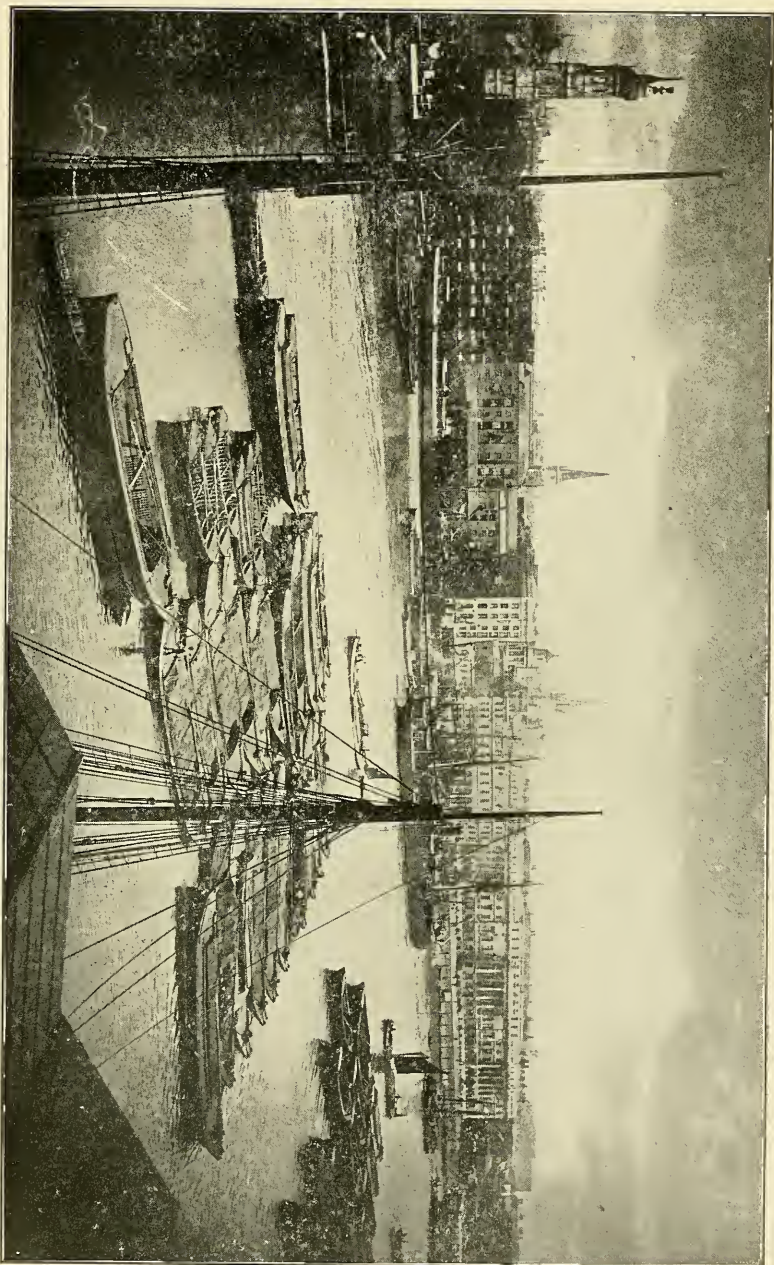
among the Americans, and then the king, Louis XVI., quarreled with George III., and helped them openly.

There was a very clever man among the Americans named Benjamin Franklin, a printer by trade, but who made very curious discoveries. One of them was that lightning comes from the strange power men call electricity, and that there are some substances which it will run along, so that it can be brought down to the ground without doing any mischief—especially metallic wires. He made sure of it by flying a kite, with such an iron wire, up to the clouds when there was a thunder-storm. The lightning was attracted by the wire, ran right down the wet string of the kite, and only glanced off when it came to a silk ribbon—because electricity will not go along silk. After this, such wires were fastened to buildings, and carried down into the ground, to convey away the force of the lightning. They are frequently seen on the tops of churches or tall buildings, and are called conductors. Franklin was a plain-spoken, homely-dressing man; and when he was sent to Paris on the affairs of the Americans, all the great ladies and gentlemen went into raptures about his beautiful simplicity, and began to imitate him, in a very affected, ridiculous way.

In the meantime, the war went on between America and England, year after year; and the Americans became trained soldiers and got the better, so that George III. was advised to give up his rights over them. Old Lord Chatham, his grandfather's minister, who had long been too sick and feeble to undertake any public business, thought it so bad for the country to give anything up, that he came down to the House of Lords to make a speech against doing so; but he was not strong enough for the exertion, and had only just done speaking when he fainted away. He was carried to his coach and taken home, where he died a month later.

The war went on, but when it had lasted seven years the English felt that peace must be made; and so George III. gave up his rights to all that country that is called the United States of America. The United States set up a Government of their own, which has gone on ever since, without a king, but with a President, who is freshly chosen every four years, and for whom every man in the country has a vote.

As if to make up for what was lost in the West, the English were winning a great deal in the East Indies, chiefly from a great prince called Tip-poo Sahib, who was very powerful, and at one time took a number of English officers prisoners, and drove them to his city of Seringapatam, chained together in pairs, and kept them half starved in a prison, where several died; but he was defeated and killed. They were set free by their countrymen, after nearly two years of grievous hardship.



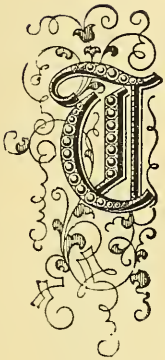
THE THAMES BELOW LONDON BRIDGE

From a photo by G. W. Wilson & Co., Ltd., Aberdeen

CHAPTER XLIV.

GEORGE III.

A.D. 1785-1810.



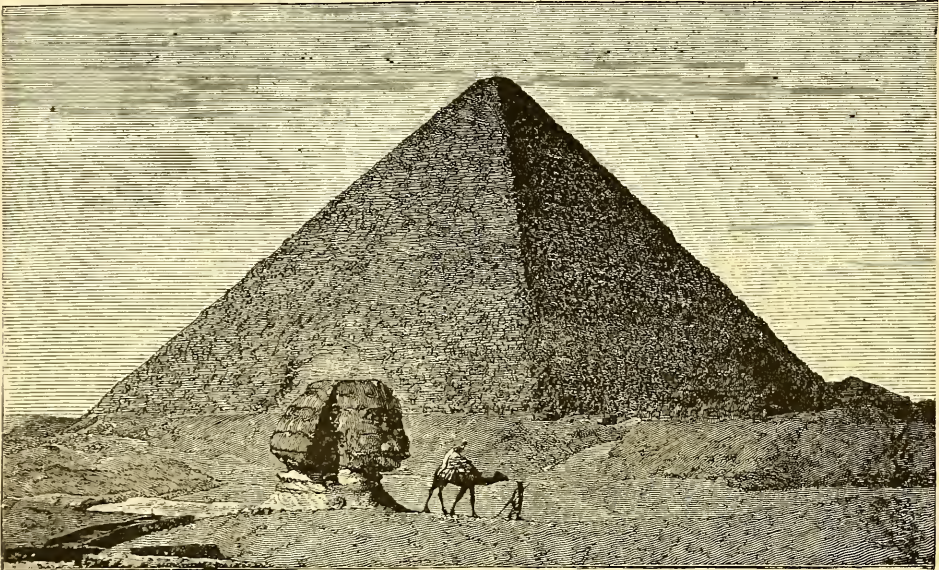
THE chief sorrow of George III. was that his eldest sons were wild, disobedient young men. George, Prince of Wales, especially, was very handsome, and extremely proud of his own beauty. He was called the First Gentleman in Europe, and set the fashion in every matter of taste; but he spent and wasted money to a shameful amount, and was full of bad habits; besides which, he used to set himself in every way in his power to vex and contradict his father and mother, whom he despised for their plain simple ways and their love of duty.

The next two brothers—Frederick, Duke of York, and William, Duke of Clarence—had also very bad habits; but they went astray from carelessness, and did not wilfully oppose their father, like their eldest brother.

William Pitt, son of Lord Chatham, was Prime Minister. He thought that the Roman Catholics in England ought to have the same rights as the king's other subjects, and not be hindered from being members of Parliament, judges, or, indeed, from holding any office; and he wanted to bring a bill into Parliament for this purpose. But the king thought that for him to consent would be contrary to the oath he had sworn when he was crowned, and which had been drawn up when William of Orange came over. Nothing would make George III. break his word, and he remained firm, though he was so harassed and distressed that he fell ill, and lost the use of his reason for a time. There were questions whether the regency—that is, the right to act as king—should be given to the son, who, though his heir, was so unlike him, when he recovered; and there was a great day of joy throughout the nation, when he went in state to St. Paul's Cathedral to return thanks.

In the meantime, terrible troubles were going on in France. Neither the kings nor the nobles had, for ages past, had any notion of their proper duties to the people under them, but had ground them down so hard that at last they could bear it no longer; and there was a great rising up throughout the country, which is known as the Great French Revolution. The king who was then reigning was a good and kind man, Louis XVI., who would gladly have put things in better order; but he was not as wise or firm as he was good, and the people hated him for the evil doings of his

forefathers. So, while he was trying to make up his mind what to do, the power was taken out of his hands, and he, with his wife, sister, and two children, were shut up in prison. An evil spirit came into the people, and made them believe that the only way to keep themselves free would be to get rid of all who had been great people in the former days. So they set up a machine for cutting off heads, called the guillotine; and there, day after day, nobles and priests, gentlemen and ladies—even the king, queen, and princess, were brought and slain. The two children were not guillotined, but the poor little boy, only nine years old, was worse off than if he had been, for the cruel wretches who kept him called him the wolf-cub, and said he was to be got rid of; and they kept him alone in a dark, dirty room, and



A PYRAMID (EGYPT).

used him so ill that he pined to death. His sister remained in prison till better days came. Many French gentry and clergymen fled to England, and there were kindly treated and helped to live; and the king's brother, now the rightful king himself, found a home there too.

At last the French grew weary of this horrible bloodshed: but, as they could not manage themselves, a soldier named Napoleon Bonaparte, by his great cleverness and the victories he gained over other nations, succeeded in getting all the power. His victories were wonderful. He beat the Germans, the Italians, the Russians, and conquered wherever he went. There was only one nation he never could beat, and that was the English; though he very much wanted to go to England with a great fleet and army, and to conquer the island. All over England people got ready. All the men learnt

something of how to be soldiers, and made themselves into regiments of volunteers; and careful watch was kept against the quantities of flat-bottomed boats that Bonaparte had made ready to bring his troops across the English Channel. But no one had ships and sailors like the English; and, besides, they had the greatest sea-captain who ever lived, whose name was Horatio Nelson. When the French went under Napoleon to try to conquer Egypt and all the East, Nelson went after them with his ships, and beat the whole French fleet, though it was a great deal larger than his own, at the mouth of the Nile, blowing up the Admiral's ship, and taking and burning many more. Afterward, when the King of Denmark was being made to take part against England, Nelson's fleet sailed to Copenhagen, fought a sharp battle, and took all the Danish ships. And lastly, when Spain had made friends with France, and both their fleets had joined together against England, Lord Nelson fought them both off Cape Trafalgar, and gained the greatest of all his victories; but it was his last, for a Frenchman on the mast-head shot him through the backbone, and he died the same night. No one should ever forget the order he gave to all his sailors in all the ships before the battle—"England expects every man to do his duty."

After the battle of Trafalgar the sea was cleared of the enemy's ships, and there was no more talk of invading England. Indeed, though Bonaparte overran nearly all the Continent of Europe, the smallest strip of sea was enough to stop him, for his ships could not stand before the English ones.

For the greater part of this time English affairs were managed by Mr. Pitt, Lord Chatham's son; but he died the same year Lord Nelson was killed, 1805, and then his great rival, Mr. Fox, held office in the ministry; but he, too, died very soon, and affairs were managed by less clever men, but who were able to go on in the line that Pitt had marked out for them: and that was, of standing up with all their might against Bonaparte—though he now called himself the Emperor, Napoleon I., and was treading down every country in Europe.

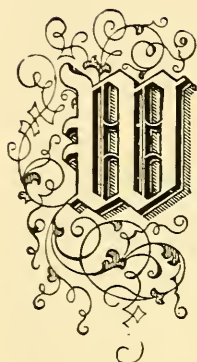
The war time was a hard one at home in England, for everything was very dear and the taxes were high; but every one felt that the only way to keep the French away was to go on fighting with them, and trying to help the people in the countries they seized upon. So the whole country stood up bravely against them.

Sad trouble came on the good old king in his later years. He lost his sight, and, about the same time, died his youngest child, the Princess Amelia, of whom he was very fond. His grief clouded his mind again, and there was no recovery this time. He was shut up in some rooms at Windsor Castle, where he had music to amuse him, and his good wife, Queen Charlotte, watched over him carefully as long as she lived.

CHAPTER XLV.

GEORGE III.—THE REGENCY.

A.D. 1810-1820.



WHEN George III. lost his senses, the government was given to his son, the Prince of Wales—the Prince Regent, as he was called. Regent means a person ruling instead of the king. Every one expected that, as he had always quarreled with his father, he would change everything and have different ministers; but instead of that, he went on just as had been done before, fighting with the French, and helping every country that tried to lift up its head against Bonaparte.

Spain was one of these countries. Napoleon had wickedly managed to get the king, and queen, and eldest son, all into his hands together, shut them up as prisoners in France, and made his own brother king. But the Spaniards were too brave to bear this, and they rose up against him, calling the English to help them. Sir John Moore was sent first, and he marched an army into Spain; but, though the Spaniards were brave, they were not steady, and when Napoleon sent more troops he was obliged to march back over steep hills, covered with snow, to Corunna, where he had left the ships. The French followed him, and he had to fight a battle to drive them back, that his soldiers might embark in quiet. It was a great victory; but in the midst of it Sir John Moore was wounded by a cannon-shot, and only lived long enough to hear that the battle was won. He was buried at the dead of night on the ramparts of Corunna, by his officers, wrapped in his cloak, just before they embarked for England.

However, before the year was over, Sir Arthur Wellesley was sent out to Portugal and Spain. He never once was beaten, and though twice he had to retreat into Portugal, he soon won back the ground he had lost; and in three years' time he had driven the French quite out of Spain, and even crossed the Pyrenæan mountains after them, forcing them back into their own country, and winning the battle of Toulouse on their own ground. This grand war had more victories in it than can be easily remembered. The chief of them were at Salamanca, Vittoria, Orthes, and Toulouse; and the whole war was called the Peninsular War, because it was fought in the Peninsula of Spain and Portugal. Sir Arthur

Wellesley had been made Duke of Wellington, to reward him, and he set off across France to meet the armies of the other European countries. For, while the English were fighting in Spain, the other states of Europe had all joined together against Napoleon, and driven him away from robbing them, and hunted him at last back to Paris, where they made him give up all his unlawful power. The right king of France, Louis XVIII., was brought home, and Napoleon was sent to a little island named Elba, in the Mediterranean Sea, where it was thought he could do no harm.

But only the next year he managed to escape, and came back to France, where all his old soldiers were delighted to see him again. The king was obliged to fly, and Napoleon was soon at the head of as large and fierce an army as ever. The first countries that were ready to fight with him were England and Prussia. The Duke of Wellington with the English, and Marshal Blücher with the Prussian army, met him on the field of Waterloo, in Belgium; and there he was so entirely defeated that he had to flee away from the field. But he found no rest or shelter anywhere, and at last was obliged to give himself up to the captain of an English ship named the *Bellerophon*. He was taken to Plymouth harbor, and kept in the ship while it was being determined what should be done with him: and at length it was decided to send him to St. Helena, a very lonely island far away in the Atlantic Ocean, whence he would have no chance of escaping. There he was kept for five years, at the end of which time he died.

The whole of Europe was at peace again; but the poor old blind King George did not know it, nor how much times had changed in his long reign. The war had waked people up from the dull state they had been in so long, and much was going on that began greater changes than any one thought of. Sixty years before, when he began to reign, the roads were so bad that it took three days to go by coach to London from Bath; now they were smooth and good, and fine swift horses were kept at short stages, which made the coaches take only a few hours on the journey. Letters came much quicker and more safely; there were a great many newspapers, and everybody was more alive. Some great writers there were, too: the Scottish poet, Walter Scott, who wrote some of the most delightful tales there are in the world; and three who lived at the lakes—Wordsworth, Southey, and Coleridge. It was only in this reign that people cared to write books for children. Mrs. Trimmer's "*Robins*," Mr. Day's "*Sandford and Merton*," and Miss Edgeworth's charming stories were being written in those days. Mrs. Trimmer, and another good lady called Hannah More, were trying to get the poor in villages better taught; and there was a very good Yorkshire gentleman—William Wilberforce—who was striving to make people better.

As to people's looks in those days, they had quite left off wigs—except

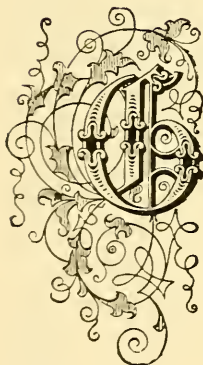
bishops, judges, and lawyers, in their robes. Men had their hair short and curly, and wore coats shaped like evening ones—generally blue, with brass buttons—buff waistcoats, and tight trousers tucked into their boots, tight stocks round their necks, and monstrous shirt-frills. Ladies had their gowns and pelisses made very short-waisted, and as tight and narrow as they could be, though with enormous sleeves in them, and their hair in little curls on their foreheads. Old ladies wore turbans in evening dress; and both they and their daughters had immense bonnets and hats, with a high crown and very large front.

In the year 1820, the good old king passed away.

CHAPTER XLVI.

GEORGE IV.

A.D. 1820–1830.



GEORGE IV. was not much under sixty years old when he came to the throne, and had really been king in all but the name for eight years past. He had been married to the Princess Caroline of Brunswick, much against his will, for she was, though a princess, far from being a lady in any of her ways, and he disliked her from the first moment he saw her; and though he could not quite treat her as Henry VIII. had treated Anne of Cleves, the two were so unhappy together that, after the first year, they never lived in the same house. They had one child, a daughter, named Charlotte—a good, bright, sensible, high-spirited girl—on whom all the hopes of the country were fixed; but as she grew up, there were many troubles between her love and her duty toward her father and mother. As soon as the peace was made, the Princess of Wales went to Italy and lived there, with a great many people of bad characters about her. Princess Charlotte was married to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Cobourg, and was very happy with him; but, to the great grief of all England, she died in the bloom of her youth, the year before her grandfather.

George IV., though he was so much alone in the world, prepared to have a most splendid coronation; but as soon as his wife heard that he was king, she set off to come to England and be crowned with him. He was exceed.

ingly angry, forbade her name to be put into the Prayer-books as queen, and called on the House of Lords to break his marriage with one who had proved herself not worthy to be a wife. There was a great uproar about it, for though the king's friends wanted him to be rid of her, all the country knew that he had been no better to her than she had been to him, and felt it unfair that the weaker one should have all the shame and disgrace, and the stronger one none. One of Caroline's defenders said that if her name were left out of the Litany, yet still she was prayed for there as one who was desolate and oppressed. People took up her cause much more hotly than she deserved, and the king was obliged to give up the inquiry into her behavior, but still he would not let her be crowned. In the midst of all the splendor and solemnity in Westminster Abbey, a carriage was driven to the door and entrance was demanded for the queen; but she was kept back, and the people did not seem disposed to interrupt the show by doing anything in her favor, as she and her friends had expected. She went back to her rooms, and, after being more foolish than ever in her ways, died, of fretting and pining. It is a sad history, where both were much to blame; and it shows how hateful to the king she must have been, that, when Napoleon died, being told his greatest enemy was dead, he answered, "When did she die?" But if he had been a good man himself, and not selfish, he would have borne with the poor, ill-brought-up, giddy girl, when first she came, and that would have prevented her going so far astray.

George IV. made two journeys—one to Scotland, and the other to Ireland. He was the first of the House of Brunswick who ever visited these other two kingdoms, and he was received in both with great splendor and rejoicing; but after this his health began to fail, and he disliked showing himself. He spent most of his time at a house he had built for himself at Brighton, called the Pavilion, and at Windsor, where he used to drive about in the park. He was kind and gracious to those with whom he associated, but they were as few as possible.

He was vexed and angry at having to consent to the Bill for letting Roman Catholics sit in Parliament, and hold other offices—the same that his father had stood out against. It was not that he cared for one religion more than another, for he had never been a religious man, but he saw that it would be the beginning of a great many changes that would alter the whole state of things. His next brother, Frederick, Duke of York, died before him; and the third, William, Duke of Clarence, who had been brought up as an officer in the navy, was a friend of the Whigs, and of those who were ready to make alterations.

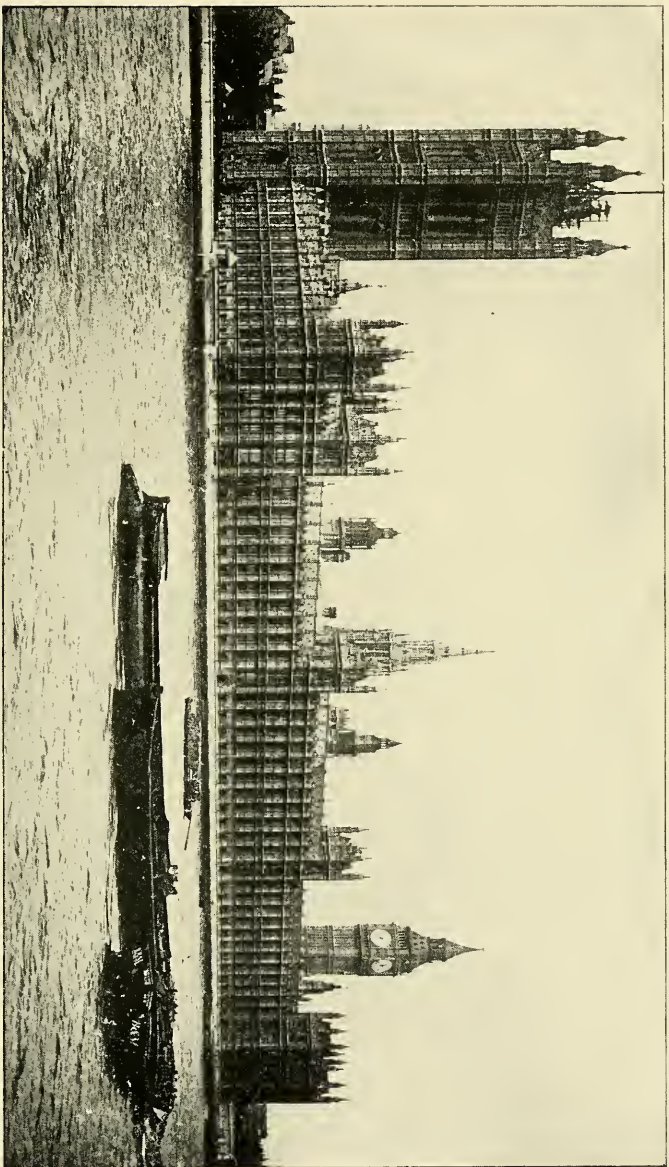
Changes were coming of themselves, though—for inventions were making progress in this time of peace. People had begun to find out the great power of steam, and had made it move the ships, which had hitherto de-

pendent upon the winds, and thus it became much easier to travel from one country to another and to send goods. Steam was also being used to work engines for spinning and weaving cotton, linen, and wool, and for working



PARLIAMENT HOUSES.

in metals; so that what had hitherto been done by hand, by small numbers of skilful people, was now brought about by large machines, where the labor was done by steam; but quantities of people were needed to assist the



THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT

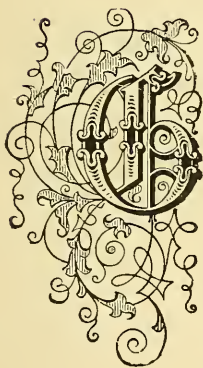
From a photo by Valentine & Sons, Ltd., Dundee

engine. And as steam cannot be had without fire, and most of the coal is in the Northern parts of England, almost all of these works were set up in them, and people flocked to get work there, so that the towns began to grow very large. Manchester was one, with Liverpool as the sea-port from which to send its calico, and get its cotton. Sheffield and Birmingham grew famous for works in iron and steel, and so on; and all this tended to make the manufacturers as rich and great as the old lords and squires, who had held most of the power in England ever since, at the Revolution, they had got it away from the king. Every one saw that some great change would soon come; but before it came to the point George IV. fell ill, and died after a reign of twenty years in reality, but of only ten in name, the first five of which were spent in war, and the last fifteen in peace. The Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel were his chief ministers—for the duke was as clear-headed in peace as he was in war.

CHAPTER XLVII.

WILLIAM IV.

A.D. 1830-1837.



GEORGE IV. had no child living at the time of his death. His next brother, Frederic, Duke of York, died before him, likewise without children, so the crown went to William, Duke of Clarence, third son of George III. He had been a sailor in his younger days, but was an elderly man when he came to the throne. He was a dull and not a very wise man, but good-natured and kind, and had an open, friendly, sailor manner; and his wife, Queen Adelaide, of Saxe-Meiningen, was an excellent woman, whom every one respected. They never had any children but two daughters who died in infancy: and every one knew that the next heir must be the Princess Victoria, daughter to the next brother, Edward, Duke of Kent, who had died the year after she was born.

King William IV. had always been friendly with the Whigs, who wanted power for the people. Those who went farthest among them were called Radicals, because they wanted a radical reform—that is, going to the root. In fact, it was time to alter the way of sending members to the House of Commons, for some of the towns that had once been big enough to choose

one were now deserted and grown very small, while on the other hand, others which used to be little villages, like Birmingham and Brighton, had now become very large, and full of people.

The Duke of Wellington and his friends wanted to consider of the best way of setting these things to rights, but the Radicals wanted to do much more and much faster than he was willing to grant. The poor fancied that the new rights proposed would make them better off all at once, and that every man would get a fat pig in his sty and as much bread as he wanted; and they were so angry at any delay, that they went about in bands burning the hay-ricks and stacks of corn, to frighten their landlords. And the Duke of Wellington's great deeds were forgotten in the anger of the mob, who gathered round him, ready to abuse and pelt him as he rode along; and yet, as they saw his quiet, calm way of going on, taking no heed to them, and quite fearless, no one raised a hand. They broke the windows of his house in London, though, and he had iron blinds put up to protect them. He went out of office, and the Whigs came in, and then the Act of Parliament was passed which was called the Reform Bill—because it set to rights what had gone wrong as to which towns should have members of their own, and, besides, allowed every one in a borough town, who rented a house at ten pounds a year, to vote for the member of Parliament. A borough, it must be remembered, is a town that has a member of Parliament, and a city is one that is, or has been, the see of a Bishop.

Several more changes were made under King William. Most of the great union workhouses were built then, and it was made less easy to get help from the parish without going to live in one. This was meant to cure people of being idle and liking to live on other folks' money—and it has done good in that way; but workhouses are sad places for the poor aged people who cannot work, and it is a great kindness to help them to keep out of them.

The best thing that was done was the setting the slaves free. Look at the map of America, and you will see a number of islands—beautiful places, where sugar-canes, and coffee, and spices grow. Many of these belong to the English, but it is too hot for Englishmen to work there. So, for more than a hundred years, there had been a wicked custom that ships should go to Africa, and there the crews would steal negro men, women, and children, or buy them of tribes of fierce negroes who had made them captive, and carry them off to the West Indian Islands, where they were sold to work for their masters, just as cattle are bought and sold. An English gentleman—William Wilberforce—worked half his life to get this horrible slave-trade forbidden; and at last he succeeded, in the year 1807, whilst George III. was still reigning. But though no more blacks were brought from Africa, still the people

in the West Indies were allowed to keep, and buy and sell the slaves they already had. So Wilberforce and his friends still worked on until the time of William IV., when, in 1834, all the slaves in the British dominions were set free.

This reign only lasted seven years, and there were no wars in it; so the only other thing that I have to tell you about it is, that people had gone on from finding that steam could be made to work their ships to making it draw carriages. Railways were being made for trains of carriages and vans to be drawn by one steam-engine. The oldest of all was between Manchester and Liverpool, and was opened in 1830, the very year that William IV. began to reign, and that answered so well that more and more began to be made, and the whole country to be covered with a network of railways, so that people and goods could be carried about much quicker than ever was dreamt of in old times; while steam-ships were made larger and larger, and to go greater distances.

Besides this, many people in England found there was not work or food enough for them at home, and went to settle in Canada, and Australia, and Van Dieman's Land, and New Zealand, making, in all these distant places, the new English homes called colonies; and thus there have come to be English people wherever the sun shines.

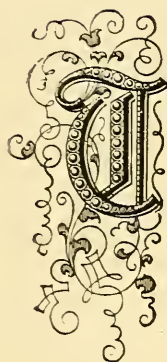
William IV. died in the year 1837. He was the last English king who had the German State of Hanover. It cannot belong to a woman, so it went to his brother Ernest, instead of his niece Victoria.



CHAPTER XLVIII.

VICTORIA.

A.D. 1837-1855.



HE Princess Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent, was but eighteen years old when she was waked early one morning to hear that she was Queen of England.

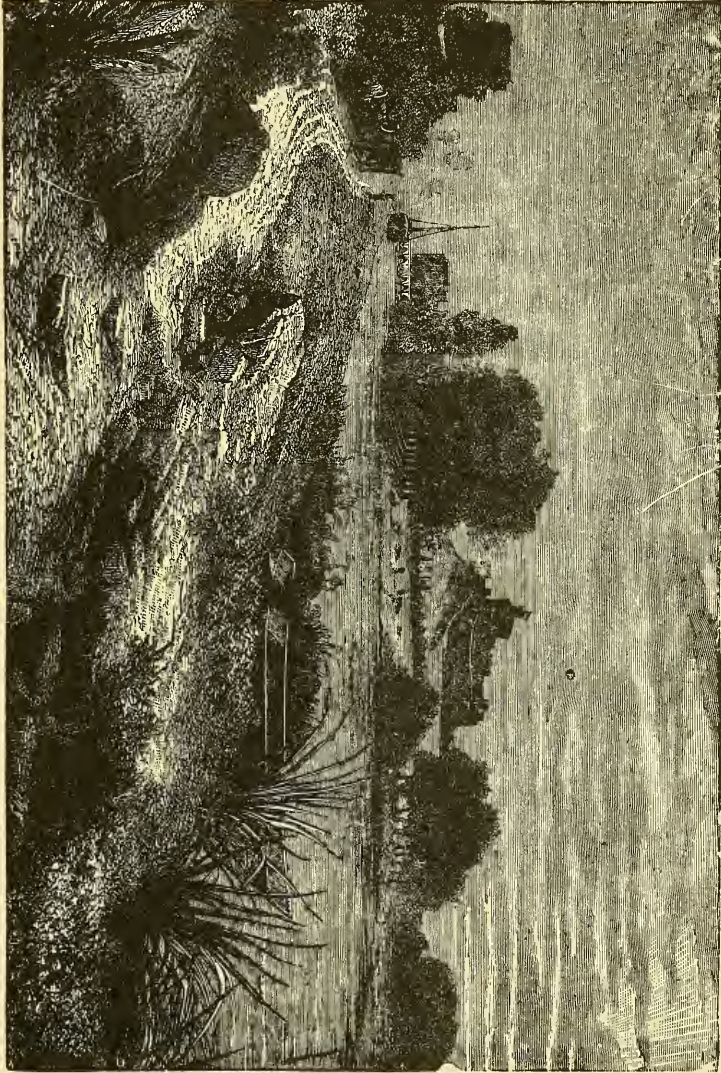
She went with her mother, the Duchess of Kent, to live, sometimes at Buckingham Palace and sometimes at Windsor Castle, and the next year she was crowned in state at Westminster Abbey. Every one saw then how kind she was, for when one of the lords, who was very old, stumbled on the steps as he came to pay her homage, she sprang up from her throne to help him.

Three years later she was married to Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, a most excellent man, who made it his whole business to help her in all her duties as sovereign of her great country, without putting himself forward. Nothing ever has been more beautiful than the way those two behaved to one another: she never forgetting that he was her husband and she only his wife, and he always remembering that she was really the queen, and that he had no power at all. He had a clear head and good judgment that every one trusted to, and yet he always kept himself in the background, that the queen might have all the credit of whatever was done.

He took much pains to get all that was good and beautiful encouraged, and to turn people's minds to doing things not only in the quickest and cheapest, but in the best and most beautiful way possible. One of these plans that he carried out was to set up what he called an International Exhibition, namely—a great building, to which every country was invited to send specimens of all its arts and manufactures. It was called the World's Fair. The house was of glass, and was a beautiful thing in itself. It was opened on the 1st of May, 1851; and, though there have been many great International Exhibitions since, not one has come up to the first.

People talked as if the World's Fair was to make all nations friends; but it is not showing off their laces and their silks, their ironwork and brass, their pictures and statues, that can keep them at peace: and, only two years after the Great Exhibition, a great war broke out in Europe—only a year after the great Duke of Wellington had died, full of years and honors.

The only country in Europe that is not Christian is Turkey; and the Russians have always greatly wished to conquer Turkey, and join it on to their great empire. The Turks have been getting less powerful for a long time past, and finding it harder to govern the country; and one day the Emperor of Russia asked the English ambassador, Sir Hamilton Seymour,



WINDSOR CASTLE

if he did not think the Turkish power a very sick man who would soon be dead. Sir Hamilton Seymour knew what this meant; and he knew the English did not think it right that the Russians should drive out the Sultan of Turkey—even though he is not a Christian; so he made the emperor understand that if the sick man did die, it would not be for want of doctors.

Neither the English nor the French could bear that the Russians should get so much power as they would have if they gained all the countries down to the Mediterranean Sea; so, as soon as ever the Russians began to attack the Turks, the English and French armies were sent to defend them; and they found the best way of doing this was to go and fight the Russians in their own country, namely—the Crimea, the peninsula which hangs, as it were, down into the Black Sea. So, in the autumn of the year 1854, the English and French armies, under Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Arnaud, were landed in the Crimea, where they gained a great victory on their first landing, called the battle of the Alma, and then besieged the city of Sebastopol. It was a very long siege, and in the course of it the two armies suffered sadly from cold and damp, and there was much illness; but a brave English lady, named Florence Nightingale, went out with a number of nurses to take care of the sick and wounded, and thus she saved a great many lives. There were two more famous battles. One was when six hundred English horsemen were sent by mistake against a whole battery of Russian cannon, and rode on as bravely as if they were not seeing their comrades shot down, till scarcely half were left. This was called the Charge of Balaklava. The other battle was when the Russians crept out, late in the evening of November 5th, to attack the English camp; and there was a dreadful fight by night and in the early morning, on the heights of Inkerman; but at last the English won the battle, and gave the day a better honor than it had had before. Then came a terrible winter of watching the city and firing at the walls; and when at last, on the 18th of June, 1855, it was assaulted, the defenders beat the attack off: and Lord Raglan, worn out with care and vexation, died a few days after. However, soon another attack was made, and in September half the city was won. The Emperor of Russia had died during the war, and his son made peace, on condition that Sebastopol should not be fortified again, and that the Russians should let the Turks alone, and keep no fleet in the Black Sea.

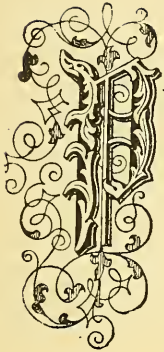
In this war news flew faster than ever it had done before. Remember, Benjamin Franklin found that electricity—that strange power of which lightning is the visible sign—could be carried along upon metal wire. It had since been made out how to make the touch of a magnet at one end of these wires make the other end move, so that letters can be pointed to, words spelt out, and messages sent to any distance with really the speed of lightning. This is the wonderful electric telegraph, the wires of which run alongside the railway.



CHAPTER XLIX.

VICTORIA.

A.D. 1857-1860.



PEACE had been made after the Crimean war, and everybody hoped it was going to last, when very sad news came from India. Remember that English people had gone from home to live in India, and had gradually gained more and more lands there, so that they were making themselves rulers and governors over all that great country. They had some of the regiments of the English army to help them to keep up their power, and a great many soldiers besides—Hindoos, or natives of India, who had English officers, and were taught to fight in the English manner. These Hindoo soldiers were called Sepoys. They were not Christians, but were some of them Mohammedans, and some believed in the strange religion of India, which teaches people to believe in a great many gods—some of them very savage and cruel ones, according to their stories, and which forbid them many very simple things. One of the things it forbids is the killing a cow, or touching beef, or any part of it.

Now, it seems the Sepoys had grown discontented with the English; and, besides that, there came out a new sort of cartridge—that is, little parcels of powder and shot with which to load fire-arms. The Sepoys took it into their heads that these cartridges had grease in them taken from cows, and that it was a trick on the part of the English to make them break the rules of their religion, and force them to become Christians. In their anger they made a conspiracy together; and, in many of the places in India, they then suddenly turned upon their English officers, and shot them down on their parade ground, and then they went to the houses and killed every white woman and child they could meet with. Some few had very wonderful escapes, and were kindly protected by native friends; and many showed great bravery and piety in their troubles. After that the Sepoys marched away to the city of Delhi, where an old man lived who had once been king, and they set him up to be king, while every English person left in the city was murdered.

The English regiments in India made haste to come into Bengal, to try to save their country-folk who had shut themselves up in the towns or strong places, and were being besieged there by the Sepoys. A great many

were in barracks in Cawnpore. It was not a strong place, and only had a mud wall round; but there was a native prince called the Nana Sahib, who had always seemed a friend to the officers—had gone out hunting with them, and invited them to his house. They thought themselves safe near him; but, to their horror, he forgot all this, and joined the Sepoys. The cannon were turned against them, and the Sepoys watched all day the barrack-yard where they were shut in, and shot every one who went for water. At last, after more pain and misery than we can bear to think of, they gave themselves up to the Nana, and, horrible to tell, he killed them all. The men were shot the first day, and the women and little children were then shut up in a house, where they were kept for a night. Then the Nana heard that the English army was coming, and in his fright and rage he sent in his men, who killed every one of them, and threw their bodies into a deep well. The English came up the next day, and were nearly mad with grief and anger. They could not lay hands on the Nana, but they punished all the people he had employed; and they were so furious that they hardly showed mercy to another Sepoy after that dreadful sight.

There were some more English holding out in the city of Lucknow, and they longed to go to their relief; but first Delhi, where the old king was, had to be taken; and, as it was a very strong place, it was a long time before it was conquered; but at last the gates of the city were blown up by three brave men, and the whole army made their way in. More troops had been sent out from England to help their comrades, and they were able at last to march to Lucknow. There, week after week, the English soldiers, men of business, ladies, soldiers' wives, and little children, had bravely waited, with the enemy round, and shots so often coming through the buildings that they had chiefly to live in the cellars; and the food was so scanty and bad, that the sickly people and the little babies mostly died; and no one seemed able to get well if once he was wounded. Help came at last. The brave Sir Colin Campbell, who had been sent out from home, brought the army to their rescue, and they were saved. The Sepoys were beaten in every fight; and at last the terrible time of the mutiny was over, and India quiet again.

In 1860, the queen and all the nation had a grievous loss in the death of the good Prince Consort, Albert, who died of a fever at Windsor Castle, and was mourned for by every one, as if he had been a relation or friend. He left nine children, of whom the eldest, Victoria, the Princess Royal, was married to the Prince of Prussia. He had done everything to help forward improvements; and the country only found out how wise and good he was after he was taken away.

Pains began to be taken to make the great towns healthier. It is true that the plague has never come to England since the reign of Charles II.

but those sad diseases, cholera and typhus fever, come where people will not attend to cleanliness. The first time the cholera came was in the year 1833, under William IV.; and that was the worst time of all, because it was a new disease, and the doctors did not know what to do to cure it. But now they understand it much better—both how to treat it, and, what is better, how to keep it away; and that is by keeping everything sweet and clean. If we do that, we may trust that God in His mercy will keep deadly sickness away.





CHAPTER I.

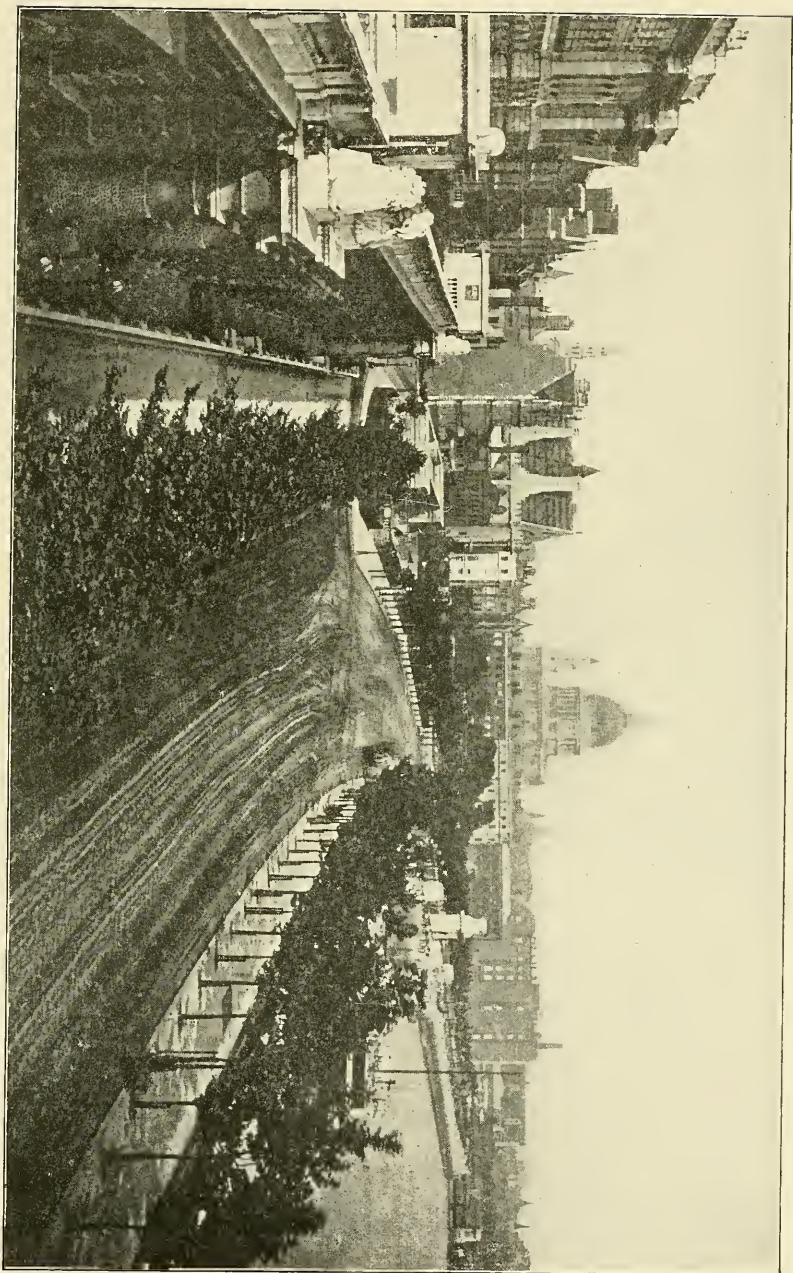
VICTORIA.

A.D. 1860-1872.



NE more chapter, which, happily, does not finish the history of the good and highly esteemed Queen Victoria, and these Stories of the History of England will be over.

All the nation rejoiced very much when the queen's eldest son, Albert Edward, the Prince of Wales, married Alexandra, daughter to the King of Denmark. Her father and mother brought her to England, and the prince met her on board ship in the mouth of the Thames; and there was a most beautiful and joyous procession through London. When they were married the next day, in St. George's Chapel at Windsor, the whole of England made merry, and there were bonfires on every hill, and illuminations in every town, so that the whole island was glowing with brightness all that Spring evening. And there might well be rejoicing and thanksgiving, for the English nation love the Princess of Wales, who is as good as she is beautiful.



THAMES EMBANKMENT, LONDON

There is a country in Africa called Abyssinia, south of Egypt. The people there are Christians, but they have had very little to do with other nations, and have grown very dull and half savage; indeed, they have many horrid and disgusting customs, and have forgotten all the teaching that would have made them better. Of late years there had been some attempt to wake them up and teach them; and they had a clever king named Theodore, who seemed pleased and willing to improve himself and his nation. He allowed missionaries to come and try to teach his people what Christianity means a little better than they knew before, and invited skilled workmen to come and teach his people. They came; but not long after Theodore was affronted by the English Government, and shut them all up in prison. Messages were sent to insist upon his releasing them, but he did not attend or understand; and at last an army was sent to land on the coast from the east, under General Napier, and march to his capital, which was called Magdala, and stood on a hill.

General Napier managed so well that there was no fighting on the road. He came to the gates of Magdala, and threatened to fire upon it if the prisoners were not given up to him. He waited till the time was up, and then caused his troops to begin the attack. The Abyssinians fled away, and close by one of the gates Theodore was found lying dead, shot through. No one is quite sure whether one of his servants killed him treacherously, or whether he killed himself in his rage and despair. England did not try to keep Abyssinia, though it was conquered; but it was left to the Royal Family whom Theodore had turned out, and Theodore's little son, about five years old, was brought to England; but as he could not bear the cold winters, he was sent to a school in India. He did not live to grow up. This war took place in 1868.

It was much feared that it would be necessary to have another war on behalf of the Turks, because the Russians were not keeping the treaty that had been made after the Crimean war. There was a sharp war in 1878-9, between the Turks and Russians. The British fleet was sent to the Turkish seas, and soldiers were brought from India in case they should be wanted; but when the Russians found that the English were in earnest, they consented that there should be a great meeting of messengers from all the chief powers of Europe, at Berlin, and peace was made. The Turks promised that, if the English would protect them, they would allow English officers to see that their Christian subjects were not ill-used, and that violence and robbery were put down. They also gave up to England the island of Cyprus, in pledge for the money that had been loaned them.

On the south-east coast of Africa, there is a great colony of English, called Natal. The native people there are called Kaffirs. They are black, but they have much more sense and spirit than Negroes have. The most

important among them are the tribes known as Zulus. These people, who are independent, have had very fierce and able kings, who trained them up to war, and who were dreadfully cruel, so that a great number of their subjects fled across the border, the river Tugela, between the free country and that subject to the English. These poor runaways are glad to pay a small sum by the year for leave to live in the territory of the English, often working for them, and becoming servants in their houses.

On the further side, to the west, there is a great settlement called the Transvaal. The people there are descended from the Dutch, who, when Cape Colony was made over to England, did not choose to live under English rule, but went off, with their wagons, oxen, and families, to find a free home. They are called Boers, which is the Dutch word for a farmer. There have always been a great many quarrels between the Boers and the Kaffirs, and horribly savage things have been done on each side. At last, as the English colonists spread further and further, and many of them became mixed with the Dutch, it seemed well that the Transvaal should be taken under the English rule, and that Government should guard it from the Kaffirs, instead of each family fighting for itself. Some of the Boers objected much, and some people thought the arrangement unjust. Moreover, the Zulu King, Cetewayo, who had for many years been a friend to England, became angry, and began to show that he intended to make war.

The English governor thought it best to begin. So an army was marched across the Tugela. But most likely the officers did not understand how fierce and brave wild savages like the Zulus could be, for one division of the forces which were in the camp at Isandulana let itself be lured out of shelter. The Zulus in huge numbers came round them, and killed almost every man of them, then broke into the camp and made a dreadful slaughter there. Only a very few escaped across the Tugela to tell the sad story; but at another little camp, called Rorke's Drift, there was a most brave defence, the biscuit tins were built up into a wall, and the soldiers fired over it, and beat off the enemy.

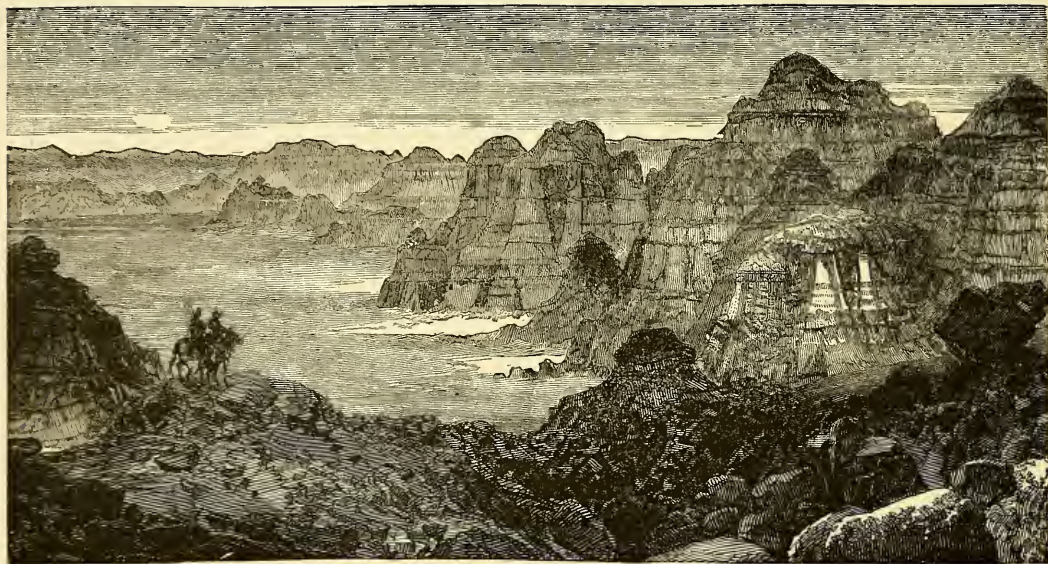
Cetewayo had lost a great many of his men, and he never tried to invade Natal. There was a camp under Colonel Pearson which was closely watched, and had to wait for relief till troops could be collected; but when it was possible to advance again, the English drove all before them, and at last Cetewayo himself was made prisoner and sent to Cape Town, while his lands have been broken up among smaller chiefs, who are not to be allowed to follow his cruel customs. All the Kaffirs living under English rule were faithful, and never tried to join their countrymen.

One sad thing happened in this war. The son of the Emperor Napoleon III. had been brought up in the English military school at Woolwich. He was very anxious to share in the fighting, and though he was not in the

army, he obtained leave to go out to Africa. Orders were given to be very careful of him, and not let him run into any danger, but he was a bold, dashing youth, and bent on seeing and doing everything. Thus he went out with a small party to survey the country, and while all were on foot sketching, some Zulus darted out of a cover of long grass and reeds, and the party mounted and rode off, but unfortunately the Prince's saddle tore in his hand, so that he could not mount: he was overtaken by the Zulus and killed, fighting bravely, with fifteen wounds of assegais.

Another war was going on at the same time in Afghanistan, a country to the north of India, because its prince, who is called the Ameer, refused to have an English envoy placed at his court, and it was feared that he meant to call in the Russians. In fact, there have, for the last hundred and fifty years been many more wars in India than it is possible even to name in this work. The Queen is now called Empress of India, where she has nearly two hundred and forty millions of subjects, more than ten times the number she has in England and Wales.





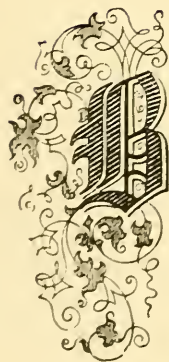
BAD LANDS MOUNTAIN.

STORIES OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

BY JOHN A. DOYLE.

CHAPTER I

AMERICA: ITS GEOGRAPHY AND NATIVES.



BEFORE entering upon the history of any people, it is well to get a distinct idea of the land in which they dwell. This knowledge is especially needful in the case of newly settled nations like the European colonies in America. For there is one great point of difference between the present inhabitants of America and the rest of the civilized nations of the world. Except the English settlers in Australia and New Zealand, they are the only civilized people of any importance, who have entered into their present dwelling-place in times of which we have full and clear accounts. Of the great nations of Europe and Asia some were settled in their present abodes in times so early that

we know nothing certain about them. The greater part moved in times of which we know something, often indeed a good deal, but of which we have no exact history. It is always very difficult to say how far the condition and character of a nation are the result of the physical features of the country in which it dwells, or of other causes which we cannot trace. But in looking at the present nations of America, we have this great advantage. We can see the country as it was before the inhabitants came to it, and we can see the inhabitants as they were before they came to the country. For they went there in times when nearly as much was known about the chief nations of Europe as is now. Thus we can compare the people as they were before they came to America with what their descendants became afterwards, and we can also compare those descendants with the descendants of the men who stayed at home in Europe; and as we also have full knowledge of all that has befallen them since they went out, we can to some extent make out how far their history since has been affected by the nature of the land in which they dwell, and how far by other causes. With every country it is needful to know something of its geography before we can understand its history, but this is especially needful in America. There is no reason for thinking that the character of the country has had more influence on the history of the people there than elsewhere, but the influence which it has had is more important to us, because we can make out more about it.

There are two ways in which the geography of a country may be looked at. We may look at it, so to speak, from within and from without. We may consider the country merely as one of the various parts of which the world is made up, and see how it stands toward other countries, how it is separated from them, and how it may be most easily reached from them: or we may consider the country by itself, setting all other lands aside for the moment, and concerning ourselves entirely with its internal character, its shape, soil, climate, and the like. In order to understand the history of the American settlements, we must look at the geography of America in each of these ways. As the founders of the settlements with which we have to deal came from Europe, we must see how America stood towards Europe, from what parts of Europe it could be most easily reached, and in what parts of America men sailing thence would be likely to settle. Secondly, we must look at the country in which the settlers established themselves, and see what effects it was likely to have on the inhabitants; how far it was suited to trade, how far to agriculture, and generally what sort of a state was likely to grow up in such a country.

However, the subject before us is not the history of America, but only of a certain part of it, namely, of those English colonies which have since become the United States; therefore we are only concerned with the internal

geography or so much of the country as those States occupy. That is, we have to look at a strip of land along the Atlantic coast of America, nearly two thousand miles long, and at most parts about two hundred miles broad. The present boundary of the United States indeed extends much farther inland, and so did their professed boundary when they were first settled. But, as is almost always the case in a newly colonized country, all the settlements of any importance were along the coast, and, as they extended inland, those that were near the coast still kept the lead in politics and education and general activity. So that, just as for a time the history of Europe was little more than the history of the nations along the coast of the Mediterranean, so the history of the United States has been till recently the history of the European settlements along the coast of the Atlantic.

Before going into the internal geography of the United States, it will be as well to look at the subject in the other way, and to consider how America stands towards other countries. The first thing probably which strikes every one on looking at a map of America is its complete separation from the rest of the world. There is, we may say, no part of the eastern coast less than three thousand miles from Europe, and no part of the western less than six thousand from Asia. Toward the north both Asia and Europe are much nearer to America, but in those parts the cold is so great, the soil so barren, and the sea so unfit for navigation, that it is scarcely possible for men to exist on either side in a state of civilization, or if they did, to emigrate from one continent to the other. As far then as we are concerned, America is separated from Europe by the whole of the Atlantic ocean, and from Asia by the whole of the Pacific. We can also at once see that America reaches almost in a straight line from north to south, forming a sort of bar across the western half of the world, and facing Europe on the one side and Asia on the other. We can see too that in order to reach the west coast from Europe or the east coast from Asia, one would have to sail right round Africa. So it is clear that no one in the common course of things would ever sail from Europe to America except across the Atlantic, or from Asia across the Pacific. Thus America is twice as far from Asia as it is from Europe. Nor is this all. If we look at any map of America in which the height of the ground is shown, we shall at once see a great difference between the eastern, or, as we may call it, the European, and the western or Asiatic coast. A chain of mountains runs along the whole length of the continent, not like a backbone, down the middle, but all along the west side, forming a sort of wall between the mainland and the Pacific. In many places these mountains form steep precipices close to the shore, and there is scarcely a single spot on the whole coast where land does not almost at once rise more than five hundred feet above the sea. To make this barrier more complete, the face of these

mountains is in many parts covered with thick woods, and, as we can easily see, it was just as impossible for men coming from Asia to make their way into the country by water as by land. For, except far north, there is not on the west side of America a single river large enough to be of any use



MOUNTAIN SCENERY ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

to expeditions of settlers wishing to make their way inland. And moreover the greater part of the coast is barren and unhealthy, and badly supplied with fresh water. If, on the other hand, we look at the opposite coast, we shall see that its whole character is quite different. For nearly the whole length of it consists of low land sloping down to the sea, and all the rivers of the American continent flow into it; and it is well supplied with harbors

and fertile islands within easy reach of the mainland, where ships could stop and take in supplies of food and water. Putting together all these differences, and remembering that the voyage from Asia to America was twice as long as that from Europe, we can see that those European nations who could sail their ships on the Atlantic were almost sure to be the colonizers of America.

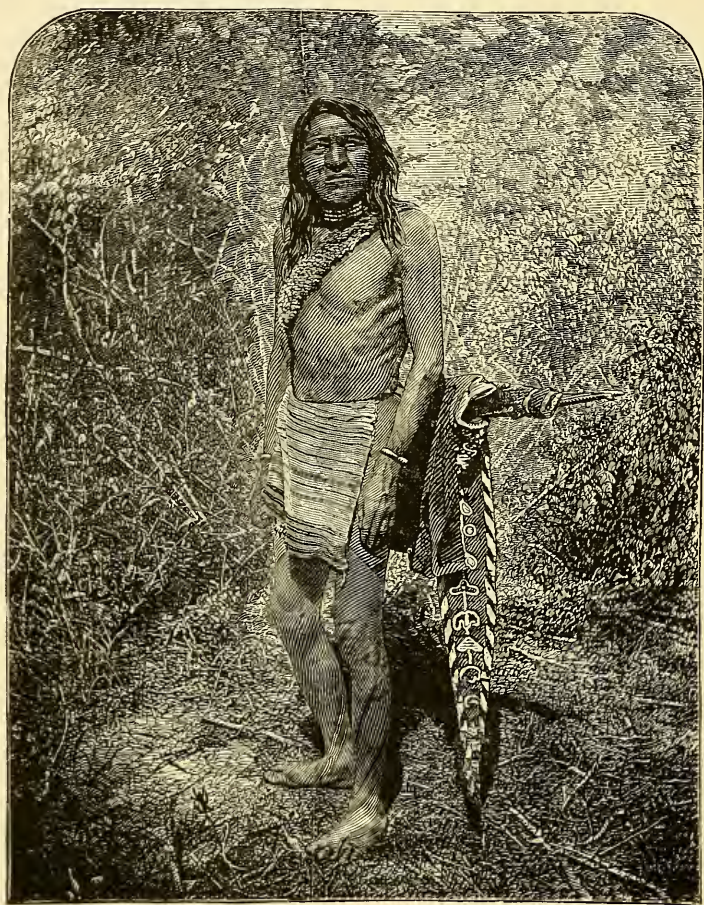
Another point to be noticed is that, as the coast line of America runs almost directly north and south, there was the greatest possible difference of latitude, and therefore of climate, between the various parts of the coast. Besides this, there were other points of difference between the various parts of the eastern coast. It was all well supplied with rivers and harbors, and none of it fenced in by mountains. But the most northerly part was cold and barren, and unlikely to tempt either colonists or traders. Then a long stretch of coast going southward from the river Orinoco was unhealthy, and the land could hardly be traversed, partly for fear of wild beasts and partly from the vast growth of forests and underwood; and the rivers, although broad, were so swift as to be difficult to sail up, and full of alligators, and it was unsafe to halt on the banks. To the south of this again there was a tract of fertile land fit for settlements. But as this was much farther from Europe than the more northerly parts, settlers would not be likely to go there as long as any of the country which could be more easily reached was unoccupied. So that the land which was in every way most fit for settlements was that which lay somewhat to the south-west of Europe, stretching from the Gulf of St. Lawrence on the north to the mouth of the Orinoco on the south. This is not all mainland. For from Point Sable at the end of the promontory of Florida where the coast turns northward, to the island of Trinidad where the coast, after winding round the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, again turns south, there is a belt of islands running right across from point to point. And since the widest outlet between any of these islands is less than one hundred miles, men sailing from Europe could hardly fail to light on them before they reached the mainland beyond. And as these islands are fertile and well watered, and have many good harbors, we can see that the possession of them would be a great advantage to any nation attempting to colonize the mainland. For an island, if well supplied with necessities, is a far more secure position for a small force than any point on the mainland can be; especially for those who can command the sea and have nothing to fear from their neighbors except by land. And men who had once established themselves in these islands could form small settlements and make forts and build fleets, and so use the islands as stepping-stones to farther conquests on the mainland. So that whatever civilized nation held these islands held the key of America, and had it in its power to colonize the mainland both to the north and south, and to keep

out other nations, so far as its resources and the number of settlers that it could spare might allow.

The coast, however, which lies just to the north-west of these islands is that on which the English colonies were placed, and with which therefore we are most concerned. One can easily see that there is no tract along the whole coast of America better supplied with harbors and navigable rivers. It will be seen too that there is no chain of mountains of any importance for nearly three hundred miles inland. Of the nature of the soil, the chief thing to be noticed is that along the greater part of the coast, the most fertile land, or at least that which was best fitted for growing corn and the other necessities of life, is cut off from the sea by a belt of poorer soil. Thus the general tendency of the settlements was to extend inland, as there were neither mountains nor forests to hinder them, and the rivers offered easy means of carriage. As was said before, the history of the United States is the history of a strip of land along the Atlantic coast; but it is also the history of a movement from that coast toward the west. But it must be remembered that this movement was always an extension and not a migration; that is to say, that it was made not by the inhabitants of the coast leaving their abodes and moving inland, but by new settlers, or those born in America who wanted land, gradually moving westward without losing their connection with the original settlements. Of course, over such a vast tract of country there were great differences in soil and climate, and other respects, but it will be best to speak of these when we come to deal one by one with the history of the separate States.

There is another subject besides the geography of America at which we must look if we would understand in what sort of a country the European colonists had to settle. They found men already dwelling in all those parts of America which they explored, and the character of these inhabitants had a great effect on the colonies. It will be most convenient for our purpose to divide these people into three groups. Firstly, there were those nations who in many things were quite as clever and skilful as any of the inhabitants of Europe, and had as much or more knowledge of many matters, such as farming, road-making, building, carpentry, and working in gold and silver, and who may therefore be fairly called civilized. Then there were those who were not nearly so advanced in those acquirements, but who yet had so much knowledge of many of the useful arts that we must call them at least half-civilized. Lastly, there were those who understood as little of those things as is possible for any nation who live together in settled groups and are at all better than wild beasts, and these we may call savages. These three groups will answer roughly to three geographical divisions. The first group will occupy the whole of the mountain-chain along the west coast, from the south of Peru to the north of Mexico, and will include four

nations, the Peruvians, the Muyscans, the Mexicans, and the Tlascalans. But they can only be roughly described as occupying this region, since the Peruvians are separated from the Muyscans and the Muyscans from the Mexicans by wide districts inhabited by tribes of the second, or half-civilized, class. The Tlascalans were just to the east of Mexico near the



NORTH AMERICAN INDIAN.

coast, and they seem to have been the only important tribe that kept its independence when the Mexicans conquered the rest of the neighboring countries. Besides the interval of country just mentioned between the greater nations, the second group inhabited the whole coast from the mouth of the Orinoco to the north side of the Gulf of Mexico, and all the islands of that coast. The third group, that with which we are most closely concerned, occupied all the country that now forms the territory of the United States, of Canada, and some parts of Mexico.

It must be understood that such a division as this is not like that which is usually made of the nations of Europe and Asia, when they are divided into races or families. For then we may say distinctly that a nation is Teutonic, or Celtic, or Slavonic, or it may be a mixture of Celtic and Teutonic. But in our division of the natives of America into three groups, some tribes are just on the line between the groups, so that one person might place them in one group and another in another, and it would be difficult to say whether a particular nation was at the bottom of one class or at the top of another. This being so, we have no names by which exactly to describe each of the three groups. With the first this need cause no difficulty, for it includes only four nations, and we shall seldom have occasion to speak of them as forming one class. With the others the case is different; for they are made up of so many small and scattered tribes, each with a name of its own, that it would be quite impossible to deal with them without some name which takes in the whole group. The name which was given by the first settlers to all the natives alike, and which has come down to our own time, is Indians, while the third group, or at least the chief part of it, is distinguished as Red Indians. This name of Indians grew out of a mistake made by the early voyagers as to the geography of America. For, knowing nothing of the western side of America, and very little of the eastern parts of Asia, they had no idea that these were separated by a vast ocean, but believed that they were all parts of one country, and this they called The Indies. Then, for the sake of clearness, they called what they believed to be the two sides of this coast, The East and West Indies, according as they were reached from Europe by sailing east or west. Soon after its discovery the mainland got the name of America from an Italian, Amerigo Vespucci, who was one of the first voyagers thither. But those parts which alone were known to the first discoverers, namely, the islands outside the Mexican Gulf, still kept the name of The West Indies, and keep it to this day. And though we have so far got rid of this mode of speaking that we never make use of the name of India except for a particular part of Asia, we still keep the old use, not only in the name of the West Indies, but when we speak of the East India Company and the East India Trade, and the like. And the name Indian now usually means a native of America, not of India itself. It will be most convenient to give this name to our third group, and to call them simply Indians, and when we have occasion to speak of the second group to call them the Indians of South America, or of the Islands as the case may be. Only it must be remembered



AMERIGO VESPUCCI.

that this way of speaking, like many others in history, which it is impossible to avoid, had its origin in a mistake.

Our knowledge of the first of these three groups comes almost wholly from Spanish writers, who describe the conquest of America by Spain. These writers seldom cared to inquire into the history and customs of the natives, except so far as they have something to do with the conquest. Thus, as the Muyscans and Tlascalans were never conquered at a single stroke like the Mexicans and Peruvians, we hear but little of them. The Tlascalans differed from the others in their government, which was much more free, and they seem to have been the bravest and most warlike of all the civilized nations of America. The other three nations were all alike in two important points. Each was governed by a hereditary line of monarchs, and each believed that in former times some man of a superior race had visited them and taught them their religion and many of their arts. All of them seem to have been as well supplied with the comforts of life as any of the nations of Europe in that age. They were skilful husbandmen, and built good houses and richly decorated temples, and in their dress they studied both ornament and comfort, and they worked cleverly with gold and silver and precious stones. In one of the most useful arts, that of road-making, the Mexicans and Peruvians were both far in advance of the Europeans of that age. For though both countries were woody and mountainous, there were roads between all the great cities, and in Peru there was a great high road as wonderful as any work ever made by human hands. It was nearly two hundred miles long, and in places it was carried by galleries and terraces and staircases along the side of precipices; and steep ravines were either filled up with masonry or had hanging bridges thrown across them. On all the great roads, both in Peru and Mexico, there were stations at short intervals, with messengers, kept by the government, who ran from one to the other. In this way, without the use of steam or horses, messages, and even goods, could be sent at the rate of two hundred miles a day. So that it is said that, though the city of Mexico was two hundred miles inland, yet fish from the sea was served at the Emperor's table only twenty-four hours after it was caught. In the art of fortification they seem to have been little, if at all, behind Europeans. For near Cuzco, the great city of Peru, was a fortress twelve hundred feet long, all built of finely-wrought stones closely fitted together without mortar, and this was joined to the city by underground galleries. They also understood how to make the best of naturally strong places by building their fortresses on the edge of precipices, and cutting away rocks so as only to leave a steep face. The Tlascalans had inclosed their whole country with a wall, and its entrance was so arranged that any one coming in was liable to be shot at by archers and spearmen, who were themselves behind the wall. In Peru and

Mexico all the public buildings, the temples and palaces and market-places and gardens, were larger and in many ways more beautiful than anything of the kind in Europe. What makes all this the more wonderful is that the people had no knowledge of the use of iron, nor any wheeled carriages, nor beasts of burden able to bear any great weight, so that everything had to be done by men's hands with scarcely any help.

Though the Peruvians and Mexicans were in many ways alike, still there were points in which they differed widely, and to understand these we must consider the two nations separately. The country of Peru formed a strip of land along the west coast about three thousand miles long and four or five hundred broad; a great part of this is occupied by high mountains. But the valleys between, and even parts of the mountain slopes, were fertile, and everything was done by watering and skilful husbandry to make the best of the soil, and all the country except the very highest ground was thickly peopled. The inhabitants were probably the most civilized of all the nations of Amer-



ANCIENT MOUND.

ica, and in one way at least they were the most remarkable of all the races of the earth of whom we know anything. There is no people told of in history who lived so completely according to the will of their rulers, and who had all the arrangements of their life and all their doings so completely settled for them. They were governed by a hereditary line of Emperors, called Incas. These Incas were believed to be, and probably were, of a different race from the rest of the Peruvians; and the Inca nobility, the kindred of the Emperor, held all the great offices, and seemed to have been the only persons who enjoyed any kind of freedom. All the land was divided into three parts—one for the Sun, whom they worshipped as a god, another for the Inca, and the rest for the nation. The first two shares were cultivated by all the people working together, and then they were free to till their own land. This third portion was from time to time divided into lots, and one of these lots given to every man in the nation, a larger or smaller lot according to the number of his family, to be held till the land was again divided. All the produce of the country besides what was grown on the soil was got from the mines and from beasts, wild and tame. All these belonged to the Inca, and all the labor of getting in the produce and making it into useful articles was done by the people working without pay as his servants. Then from the stores so procured such things as were needed by the people, clothes and the like, were served out as they were wanted. As the land allotted to each man was only enough to feed

himself and his family, no one could have any property except his house and land; and there was no buying and selling, and no man could grow rich except the Inca or his kindred, who were freed from work and perhaps had estates of their own. But though the people lived in this way, little better than slaves, they seem to have been well off for all bodily comforts, and to have been most carefully watched over by the Incas, that none might be overworked and all well cared for in old age and sickness. As there was no trade, and no one except the Inca and his chief nobles had anything to do with the government, the only things besides manual labor in which the mass of the people were concerned were religion and war. Their religion consisted for the most part of the worship of the Sun. They had indeed other gods, but the Sun was by far the most important. As we have seen, a third of the land was set aside for the Sun, and the produce was used to maintain a great number of priests, and to provide great public festivals, at which wine and food were offered to their god. This worship of the Sun may be said to have been in a manner the object for which the nation existed. For all its wars, like those of the Mohammedans, were made to extend the religion of the nation and to force other people to worship as they did. Yet their religion seems to have done very little towards quickening their minds, nor do their priests seem to have had much influence over them, nor to have taught them to think about matters of right and wrong. Indeed in general it would seem as if the Peruvians had very little power of thinking. For, even in those arts in which they excelled, they do not seem to have had any turn for invention, or for anything more than doing well and carefully what their fathers had done before them. Moreover, as every thing was done for them by the Incas, and no man could get rich by his own skill or wit, or in any way advance himself, a clever man was no better off than a stupid one, and there was nothing to sharpen men's powers and to teach them to act and think for themselves. Such an empire, however great and powerful it might seem, rested on no sure foundation. For if any mischance befell the Inca, the whole empire was left helpless, and the different parts of it had no power of protecting themselves. For though the skill of the Peruvians in fortification and making weapons and the like might enable them to conquer neighboring nations who were backward in such things, yet this would profit them little against civilized enemies. The very size of the empire too was a source of weakness: for it is always hard to manage and guard the distant frontier of a great empire, especially when it is made up of newly-conquered, and perhaps unfriendly, provinces. For in such there will almost always be some disobedience and some remains of hatred; and a crafty enemy will make use of these, and so turn the strength of the empire against itself and almost conquer it by the hands of its own subjects.

The Mexicans, although in some ways like the Peruvians, differed from them in many important points. Though under the government of a single



ITCL FROM CENTRAL AMERICA.

ruler, they enjoyed far greater freedom in the general affairs of life. Men bought and sold and got wealth, and rich merchants occupied positions of great dignity in the state. In handicrafts they were perhaps scarcely equal to the Peruvians; but in other and more important matters they were far

ahead of them. For while the Peruvians had no alphabet, and nothing of the kind better than knots tied on pieces of string as tokens, the Mexicans had a system of writing, in which they did not use letters, but signified things by pictures and emblems. The priests also, who were the most learned class among them, had gone far in the knowledge of astronomy. Their religion, unlike that of the Peruvians, seems to have had a great influence on their conduct, and dwelt much on their good and bad deeds and the importance of right and wrong in the sight of God ; and it taught them to humble themselves and make amends for their sins by fasts and penances. But there was one feature in their religion which quite outweighed any good that it might have done. For they sacrificed men, and that not on rare occasions, but commonly and in great numbers, and feasted solemnly on their flesh. They were fierce and cruel in their dealings with the neighboring countries, and some of these they had overcome, and others, like Tlascala, were still independent and at war with them. Though the people were a far abler and less slavish race than the Peruvians, the empire was beset by the same danger. For its frontier was threatened alike by unfaithful subjects and open enemies.

Of our second group, the people of the islands and the neighboring mainland, it is not needful to say much. They were divided into many small tribes living in separate villages, each governed by a chief or cacique of its own, and having little to do with one another either in the way of friendship or of war. They dwelt in stone houses, and lived chiefly by tillage, depending but little either on hunting or fishing. They seem to have had most of the comforts of life and to have shown some skill in handicrafts ; but, scattered as they were in small groups, they could accomplish nothing like the great works and buildings of Mexico and Peru. They were kindly and well-disposed people, peaceable among themselves and hospitable to strangers. But they were weak in body and mind, and in no way fit to resist an enemy that came against them in any force. For they had neither the strength of the civilized man which lies in fortresses and military engines, nor that of the savage in hardihood and cunning and being able to leave his home at a moment's notice and plunge into the forest. So these islanders were at the mercy of any civilized nation that attacked them, and might almost be called born slaves.

The third group contains those with whom the English settlers had to deal, and it is needful that we should have a clear idea of what manner of people they were. In judging of what they were when the settlers came among them, we must be careful not to be misled by those who have only seen them in later times ; for those white men who have had most to do with the Indians have been traders whose only object was to make money out of them, and who have seldom scrupled to cheat and injure

them. Even the missionaries, and those who wished well to the Indians, have for the most part only seen them after the traders had brought in drunkenness and other vices, and taught them to distrust all white men as enemies and knaves, so that we can only learn the real character of the Indians from the first explorers who saw them before any white men had come among them, and from those travelers who have been in districts where the traders had scarcely made their way. The account that we have from these writers is very different from, and on the whole much more favorable than, that generally given. Nothing could be more different than the life of these northern nations from that of the civilized races of America. The Indians were divided into a vast number of tribes, the largest of which numbered about forty or fifty thousand, while most of them were much smaller. Each of these tribes had its own territory, and was quite independent of the rest, and only in one instance do they seem to have attempted to unite in larger bodies. In the northern countries on each side of the Canadian lakes there was a league or confederacy, consisting at one time of five and at another of six of the most powerful and warlike nations. But this seems to have been the only attempt of the kind. All the tribes of any size were subdivided into villages, which were almost independent, each managing its own affairs under its own chief. Each tribe was governed by a hereditary head chief, but, as is always the case where there are no written laws and scarcely a fixed system of government, the authority of these head chiefs varied greatly. An able and ambitious chief was really the king of the nation, and arranged matters after his own will; but with a weak or easy-tempered head, the under-chiefs, or sachems, as they were called, governed their own villages much as they pleased. In no case, however, did the chief either of a tribe or of a nation govern by his own arbitrary will, but all important matters were settled by public meetings, at which every man renowned either for wisdom or courage was entitled to be heard. As might be supposed, a people living in this scattered fashion had none of the arts of life but in the simplest and rudest forms. They tilled the soil, after a fashion, and grew scanty crops of corn and vegetables; but this labor was considered disgraceful and left entirely to the women; they knew nothing about building in stone, but lived, some in huts made of timber daubed with mud, such as is sometimes used now in rude farm-buildings, and most of them in tents made of poles and skins. Yet it seems as if they neglected all useful industry rather because their mode of life did not need it, and could not indeed have been much bettered by it, than from any incapacity. For they showed themselves in no way unskilful in those few handicrafts to which they did apply themselves. Living in a country full of lakes and rivers, they needed boats, and these they made with great skill. Some tribes indeed hollowed them out of single logs by a slow and toilsome

process, but others made them of wicker-work covered with birch bark skilfully sewn together. Many of their articles, such as hatchets, bows, lances, shields and pipes, were cleverly constructed, and often tastefully ornamented; and they showed great skill in dressing skins for their clothes, and decorating their robes and head-dresses with feathers. As the woods swarmed with game, which gave them all they wanted in the way of food and clothing, it is not easy to see what need they had for mechanical arts, or

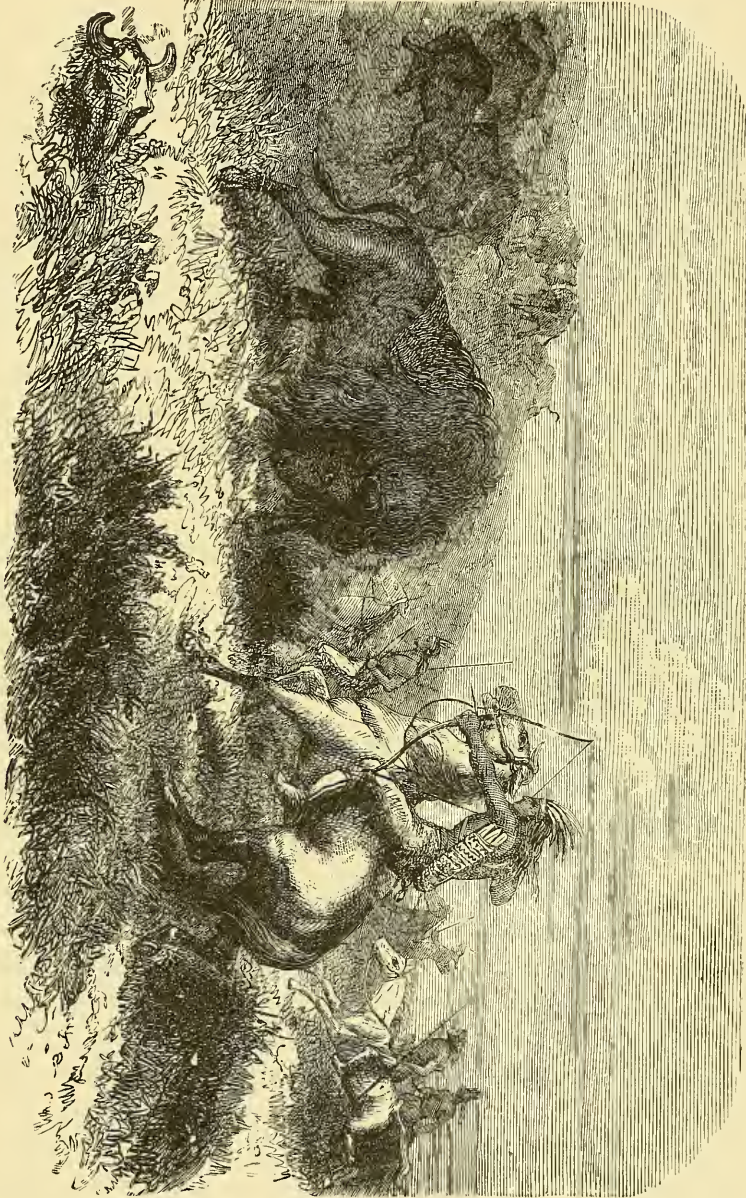


PRAIRIE DOGS.

in what way such knowledge would have made them happier. For we must not suppose that the degraded and unhappy life which they have been seen leading in modern times is anything like their natural condition. On the contrary, they seem to have been a remarkably happy and cheerful people, fond of amusements and games, and clever in contriving them. Besides the games of ball in which the whole tribe joined, they had public dances and sham fights, both conducted with regular movements, which could only be learned by careful study and drill. One matter in which all the tribes seemed to have resembled one another more or less, was their religion. There were various points of difference, and some tribes had different modes of worship from others, yet all alike believed in one supreme God, or Great Spirit, as they called him. They believed that he watched all their actions and rewarded and punished them, and they sought to please him by penances and prayers and fastings, and by great public feasts, though not, as it seems, by human sacrifices as the Mexicans did. They also believed that men

would live again after death, and be happy or miserable according as they deserved well or ill in this world. Though they were so far behind the

INDIANS HUNTING BISON.



other nations of America in mechanical skill, yet in sagacity and political cleverness they were probably in advance of them; for, living as they did in small bodies, where each man had a voice in affairs, every man's wits were called out to the utmost, and no one was suffered to become a mere machine. Their two chief pursuits, hunting and war, had the same effect. Fox hunt-

ing, especially when done not for sport but to get food, not only makes men strong and active and quickens their eyesight, but teaches them readiness and patience. And their system of war was not like that of civilized soldiers, where only one man in a thousand has to think and the rest have little more to do than to obey, but they went out in small parties, sometimes of two or three; and there was scarcely any hand-to-hand fighting, but everything lay in outwitting and surprising the enemy. They did not think mere strength and courage without wit enough for a ruler, for in many tribes there were two chiefs, one to govern in peace and the other to lead in war; and in some cases chiefs who had lost the use of their limbs, but whose wisdom was highly valued, still kept their power, and we even read of women chiefs. Speaking generally, they seem to have been good friends and dangerous foes, kind and hospitable to strangers so long as they suspected no guile, but utterly merciless when they had once begun a quarrel. For of their faults cruelty was by far the worst, and in war they spared neither women nor children, and not content with killing their prisoners, they put them to dreadful tortures. Yet it must be said that, if they were ready to inflict torture, they were likewise ready to bear it; and indeed an Indian prisoner would have felt insulted if he had been merely put to death without a chance of showing what tortures he could undergo quietly. Nor must we forget that it is only quite lately that civilized men have ceased to inflict sufferings on one another fully as great, both in war and in the execution of cruel laws.

Such a people as this, one can easily see, would be stubborn foes for any strangers to deal with. Their country too was ill-suited for civilized troops. For as there were no cities or storehouses, and scarcely any crops, it would be hardly possible for large bodies of men who did not know the country to maintain themselves. Moreover, the two great advantages which civilized men possess in war, horses and fire-arms, would be of much less value in such a country. For among rivers and forests horses are of little use, and, without horses and wagons to carry ammunition, fire-arms lose half their value. So, altogether, settlers in such a country might look for a very different resistance from that to be found in the islands, or even in Peru and Mexico.

It has been necessary to say as much as this about the various races of natives, for without having a clear idea of them we cannot understand the differences that there were between the various European Colonies.



CHAPTER II.

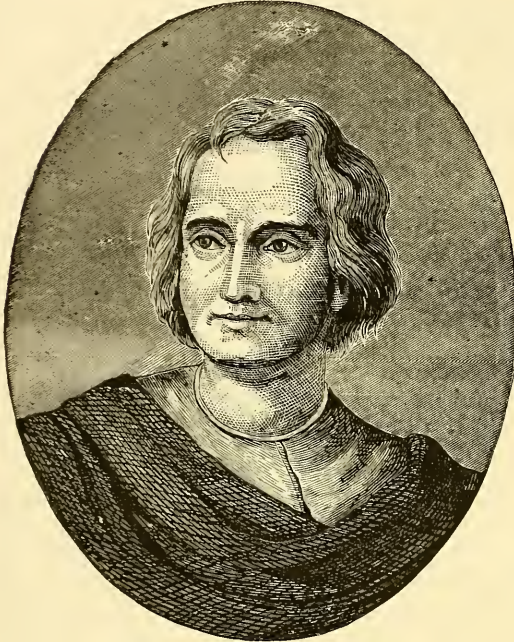
THE EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS IN AMERICA DURING THE
SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

IN studying the discovery of America and the first attempts at settlement there, two things must always be borne in mind. In the first place, it is really not at all easy to understand how enormous a difference the discovery of America made to the world. We are so familiar with the world as it is, that it is difficult to imagine it as it seemed to those who lived in the fifteenth century. We must remember that not only was America then undiscovered, but other large parts of the world, as we know it, were either actually unknown, or known only in a hazy and uncertain fashion. We must remember too that only a few specially learned and far-sighted men had any idea that there were other lands beyond those that they knew. So that the discovery of America was not like the exploration of a new country which is believed to exist, but of whose nature men are ignorant; it was, as it is often called, the discovery of a New World, of a world whose existence was never suspected by most men. And we can best understand how great a change this must have seemed by looking at a map of the world as it really is, and at one of the world as it was then supposed to be.

In the second place, we must remember that, like many things of which we are apt to speak as if they had been done at a single stroke, the discovery of America was really a very gradual process. Columbus himself, the first discoverer, possibly never knew that he had found a new Continent; and many years passed before men fully understood how America stood to the rest of the world. This ignorance of what lay beyond had a great deal to do with the adventurous spirit in which the men of that age went to America. For the further they went the more wonderful the New World became; and even when the bounds of it had been reached, there was nothing to tell them that there were not things more marvellous beyond.

Before the end of the fifteenth century, the only nations of Europe that had made much progress in seamanship were the Portuguese and the Italians. The Portuguese were the most enterprising voyagers, and had sailed along the coast of Africa and to the Canary Islands. But the Italians seem to have been the most scientific geographers and the most far-seeing

about the unknown portions of the world. There does not, however, seem to have been much zeal about voyages of discovery in Italy itself, and



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

all the great Italian navigators of that age made their discoveries in the ships of other countries. Of these navigators Christopher Columbus was the first and greatest. Whether he hoped by sailing to the west to discover a new continent, or only to get a direct route to Eastern Asia, it is hard to say. Whatever his scheme may have been, he had no small trouble to get the means for trying it. For after spending some eight years in seeking to persuade various sovereigns and great men to employ him in a voyage of discovery, he at last with great difficulty got what he wanted from the sovereigns of Spain, Ferdinand and Isabella. On the 3d of August, 1492, he sailed with three ships, and on the 12th

of October landed on the island which the Spaniards afterwards called Hispaniola, and we now St. Domingo. Here they later founded a town, and named it St. Salvador, and Spanish settlements soon spread over the island. But it was about twenty years before they extended to the neighboring islands or the mainland.

The next great discovery was made four years later. In 1497, Sebastian Cabot, a Genoese by descent, but born and bred in England, set sail from Bristol with a ship manned by Englishmen, and discovered Newfoundland and all the coast north of Florida. Thus, though Columbus discovered the islands, Cabot was the first European who is known for certain to have sailed to the mainland of America. On the strength of his voyage, England for a long while after put forward a special claim to the land to which he had sailed. In that age it was customary for such adventurers to obtain a patent from the sovereign of the country from which they sailed. This patent was a document giving various privileges, such as the right of importing merchandise free of duty, and often granting some authority over any land that might be discovered. Cabot had obtained such a patent before his first voyage, and on his return he procured a fresh one, and made a second voyage, of which no details are known. In 1501 three Bristol mer-

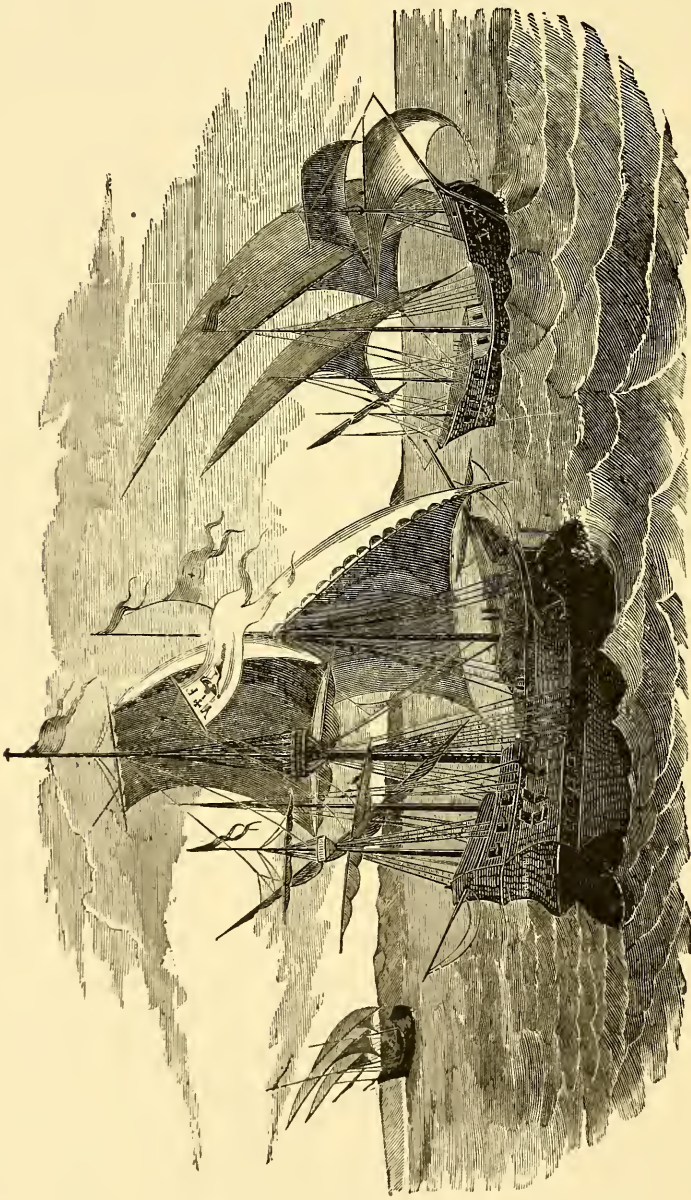


In Sight of the New World.

chants and three Portuguese obtained a patent from the English king, and it seems likely that some voyages were made about this time, but nothing certain is known about them. In any case, it did not seem as if England was likely to take a leading part in the settlement of America—for at that time she was quite unfit for any great undertakings on the sea. She had no large ships or skilful seamen, and, except a few boats that sailed north for fish from Bristol and other ports in the west, all her merchandise was carried in foreign vessels. And Henry VII., who then reigned, was a cautious and somewhat miserly king, and very unlikely to risk anything for an uncertain return. So, looking at all the nations of Europe, it seemed as if Spain alone was likely to do anything important in America. The Portuguese were taken up with their voyages to the coast of Africa, and the French seemed fully occupied at home. For though Verrazani, another Italian navigator, was sent out by the king of France, Francis I., and made great discoveries on the American coast, yet France was too much taken up with her long and unsuccessful war with Spain for these discoveries to be followed further. Soon after that the country was torn to pieces with civil wars, and had no time for distant enterprises. Thus during the sixteenth century France had very little to do with the colonization of America. There were, moreover, many things in the character and temper of the Spaniards which specially fitted them for such a task. For many years they had been engaged in almost continuous war with the Moors, and this had given them a great love of adventure for its own sake, and a great desire for preaching Christianity to the heathen, and, if necessary, for forcing them to accept it. And it required some strong passions like these to make men face all the dangers which lay before them in the New World.

For the first twenty years the Spaniards kept almost entirely to Hispaniola, and only a few unimportant settlements were made on the mainland or on the neighboring islands, and most of them were not regular settlements, but only stations for pearl-fishing. It was not till 1518 that any great attempt was made on the mainland. In that year, Velasquez, the governor of Hispaniola, sent out a small fleet to explore the mainland. As this fleet did not return so soon as he expected, he sent out a larger expedition, with about five hundred and fifty Spaniards and three hundred Indians. The command of this expedition was given to Hernando Cortez, a man of thirty-three, who had distinguished himself by courage and sagacity in an expedition on the mainland, but had never held any important office. Soon after he reached the mainland he got tidings of the great empire and city of Mexico. Hearing that the people were heathens and had much gold, he resolved to disregard his orders, and with his small force to march to the city and compel the people to become Christians and acknowledge the King of Spain as their lord. He made allies of the nations by the way, subduing

some by arms and persuading others, and causing all of them to be baptized. But naturally these new-made allies were of no great value, and could not be trusted in time of need, and all that Cortez could really depend on were his five hundred and fifty Spaniards. With these and some of the others he



CORTEZ'S FLEET SAILING FOR MEXICO.

marched into the city of Mexico. There he established himself, and was at first received by the people as the friend of their emperor, and dwelt in one of the palaces, and before long forced the emperor himself to live there as a sort of state prisoner. The Mexicans soon resented this, and open war broke

out. After various changes of fortune, and being once driven out of the city, in 1521 Cortez finally conquered Mexico. He had by that time received more than one reinforcement from home, but these only filled the places of those whom he had lost, so that at the last he had less than six hundred Spaniards with whom to conquer the great empire. Such a force would have been utterly unequal to the task but for three things. They had horses and fire-arms, neither of which the natives had ever seen; and in Cortez himself they had one of the wisest and bravest captains that ever lived. To conquer such an empire with such a force was a wonderful exploit, but there were many things which made it even more wonderful than it seems. For Cortez had no authority from the governor of Hispaniola for what he was doing, and was in constant dread of being recalled. One Narvaez was actually sent out with a fresh force to bring him back. But Cortez defeated Narvaez and joined this force to his own, and so turned what was meant for a hindrance into a help. Not only was his force small, but the men were such as he could hardly trust; nor was there anything in the former deeds of Cortez to put his soldiers in awe of him or to give them confidence in his success. So little faith indeed had he in their loyalty, that he sunk his fleet to guard against any chance of their deserting him. The Tlascalans too, and the other native allies, were but an uncertain support, and apt to fail him when things went badly with him and he most needed their aid. But what was more wonderful still, and far more honorable to Cortez, was that he not only conquered Mexico, but having conquered it, ruled it well, and protected the natives against the Spaniards. Not indeed that he, any more than the rest of his countrymen, was perfectly free from blame. In establishing his power he did things which we in this day should deem atrociously cruel. But these were all done in establishing Christianity and Spanish rule, things which Cortez firmly believed to be for the good of the Mexicans. They were not done, like many of the Spanish cruelties elsewhere, from lust of gold or in mere wantonness. Moreover, after the war had once begun, the Mexicans, unlike the natives elsewhere, provoked the Spaniards by acts of great ferocity. When we consider what it is to keep men in order who have just won a great victory and are all claiming their reward, and how completely the other Spanish conquerors failed in this matter, we see that Cortez was something far more than a great general. Through his efforts the state of the natives was always far better in Mexico than in the other Spanish provinces.

Immediately after the conquest of Mexico the other great Spanish conquest took place, which we may say gave Spain possession of South America. In 1512, one Balboa, a man of great wisdom and courage, had set out from Darien, one of the earliest Spanish settlements on the east coast, and marched across the Isthmus of Panama, and had seen the Pacific Ocean

and heard of the rich lands beyond. But he quarreled with the governor of Darien, and was put to death as a traitor, and for the time nothing came of his discoveries. In 1525, Francis Pizarro, a kinsman of Cortez, who no doubt had the conquest of Mexico before his eyes as an example, undertook an expedition to the south. He sailed along the west coast and landed in the territory of Peru, and in about nine years completely overthrew the Peruvian empire. Though, as far as mere daring and skill in war go, Pizarro was little if at all behind Cortez, in other respects he was far inferior. For Cortez undertook a task the like of which no man had ever attempted, and he persuaded his men to follow him in what must have seemed a hopeless and almost a mad enterprise. But Pizarro throughout had the example of Cortez to encourage himself and his followers. Pizarro too was well befriended at home and provided with men and supplies, while Cortez had almost as much to fear from his countrymen behind him as from the enemy in front. After the conquest the real difference was yet more fully shown. For Cortez not only overthrew a great empire, but he succeeded in the harder task of establishing a fresh government in its place, and that among a people of whose history and character he knew but little. But Pizarro utterly failed in this respect. He was himself murdered by conspirators, and the settlers fought amongst themselves, and rebelled against the governors that were sent out from Spain, and for a while Peru was utterly torn to pieces with conspiracies and civil wars, so that it was nearly twenty years before the country was brought into any kind of order.



BALBOA WADES IN
THE PACIFIC.

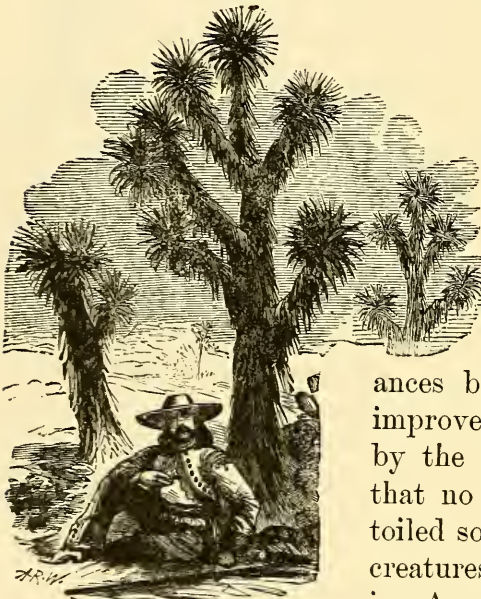
In the meantime, and after this, other discoveries and conquests were made by the Spaniards, which in any other age would have seemed wonderful, but which were overshadowed by these two great exploits. Those we may pass over, taking the cases of Mexico and Peru as specimens of the Spanish conquests. One thing, however, must be noticed. Hitherto the islands had been the great centre of all activity and enterprise among the Spanish settlers. But now the islands became less important, and Mexico and Peru served as two fresh starting-points from which discoveries and conquests were made. This may have had some effect on the English settlements by preventing the Spaniards from occupying the land which they afterwards colonized. For men sailing from the islands would be far more likely to settle on the northern coast than if they made their way inland from Mexico. The attempts that were made in that direction did not meet with such success as to encourage further efforts. In 1512 one Ponce de Leon had explored Florida in search of a fountain whose water was supposed to give endless life. But instead of finding the fountain, he was killed in an

affray with the natives. During the next thirty years the Spaniards made other expeditions into Florida, but they all ended unluckily, either through the hostility of the natives or the difficulties of the country. The fate of these adventurers leads one to think that Cortez and Pizarro might have fared very differently if they had tried their fortunes anywhere to the north of the Gulf of Mexico.

In 1562 the first attempt was made by another European nation to follow the example of Spain. A number of French Protestants settled on the coast of Florida. Many of them were disorderly and lawless, and a party of these got possession of two ships without the leave of Laudonnière, the governor, and betook themselves to piracy. The colony was soon exposed to dangers from without as well as from within. The Spanish king Philip, a zealous Roman Catholic, resolved not to suffer a Protestant colony to settle on the coast of America, and sent out one Melendez to destroy the French town and establish a Spanish one in its place. He obeyed his orders, fell upon the French and massacred nearly all of them, and founded a Spanish town, which he named St. Augustine. Two years later, this massacre was avenged by a French captain, Dominic de Gourgues. At his own expense he fitted out a fleet and sailed to Florida. There he surprised the Spanish settlement, and put to death the greater part of the inhabitants. But this success was not followed up by the French, and Spain kept possession of the country. Dreadful as these doings were, England may be said in some measure to have gained by them. The massacre of the French settlers may have done something to withhold their countrymen from trying their fortunes in the New World, and so may have helped to keep the country open for English colonists. So too De Gourgues' expedition may have taught the Spaniards some caution in dealing with the settlements of other nations. After this, St. Augustine continued to be the furthestmost point occupied by the Spaniards in that direction. Two voyages of discovery were made towards the north, but nothing came of them, and all the coast beyond Florida was left open to fresh settlers. The Spaniards were fully taken up with their exploits in the south, and had no leisure for exploring the country where there were no gold mines, and no great empires or cities to be conquered.

Conquests like these could not be accomplished without great suffering to the natives. For though it was some time before the Spanish government openly and professedly allowed the Indians to be used as slaves, and though it never gave the settlers full liberty to do as they pleased with them, yet in most of the colonies the natives were from the very beginning completely at the mercy of the Spaniards. Ten years after the discovery of Hispaniola, the natives began to decrease so in numbers that the settlers found it necessary to import slaves from other islands. For they were set to work in the

mines and the fields in a manner for which they were wholly unfit. Without going through all the sufferings inflicted on them, we may form some idea of what they underwent from the fact that many killed themselves, as the only means of escaping their tormentors. But though the sufferings of the Indians were so great as fully to outweigh any good that was done by the conquest, we must not be too ready to blame the whole Spanish nation. For the men who went to the Spanish settlements were the very dregs, not only of Spain, but of almost every country in Europe, who flocked thither in quest of adventure and gain. And we must not think that this tyranny



SPANISH ADVENTURER.

was any special wickedness peculiar to the Spaniards. For from none of the settlers did the natives suffer more than from a colony of Germans, to whom the king of Spain had given a grant of land in America. And there was at least one class of Spaniards who were not merely free from blame in this matter, but deserve the highest praise. For all that could be done to protect the natives and to bring their grievances before the government in Spain, and to improve their condition in every way, was done by the clergy. It is scarcely too much to say that no class of men ever suffered so much and toiled so unsparingly for the good of their fellow-creatures, as the Spanish priests and missionaries in America. The Spanish government, too, strove to protect the natives, and not wholly without success. But Spain was at that time

completely taken up with European affairs, and had not leisure enough for a subject of such importance and difficulty. For there could not be a harder task than to restrain such men as the conquerors of Mexico and Peru. They were for the most part reckless men, and their success had increased their confidence, and every one of them felt that Spain owed him a debt greater than she could ever pay, and most of them were ready to rebel at the least provocation. On various occasions the Spanish government sent out orders strictly forbidding the enslavement of the natives, but was obliged either to withdraw or relax this rule for fear of a rebellion among the settlers.

Another great source of mischief was that one cruel or treacherous act would make the inhabitants of a whole district enemies to all strangers, and so introduce war, which was always the forerunner of slavery and oppres-

sion. Thus one unprincipled man could do an amount of evil which no wisdom or moderation afterwards could repair. What lay at the root of all this evil was the great rapidity with which the conquest was carried out. For there are few tasks which need more experience and forethought than the government of a newly-conquered country. Without a careful study of the people, and knowledge of their habits and ideas, such a task is a hopeless one. Yet here the Spaniards were suddenly called on to govern a vast country, whose very existence they had not dreamed of forty years before. This was due chiefly to the great riches of the natives, and to their weakness. For if Mexico and Peru had either had less wealth to tempt invaders, or if their spoils had been less easy to win, the conquest would in all probability have been far slower and more gradual. In that case the Spaniards would have been able to learn more about the people with whom they were dealing, and would have had more sympathy with them. Then probably the conquest of Mexico would have been done bit by bit, like the English conquest of India; and although it might have been attended by much evil, it would have had many good results too, instead of being, as it was, almost an unmixed curse both to the conquerors and the conquered.

While all these things were being done, it seemed as if England was not about to take any part in the settlement of the New World. Only one or two voyages had been made hither, and these had been so disastrous that there was very little encouragement to others to follow. In 1527 one Albert de Prado, a foreign priest living in England, sailed out with two ships. We know that the voyagers reached Newfoundland, since letters still exist sent home thence by them; but after that nothing more is known of them. In 1536 another expedition set out, commanded by one Hore, a gentleman of London. This voyage is somewhat remarkable, not for anything that was accomplished, but because it seems to have been the first of any importance that Englishmen undertook entirely without foreign help. Landing far north, they suffered great hardships, and were on the very point of killing and eating one of their own number, but were saved by the appearance of another ship well victualled. This they seized, and so returned to England. Such a voyage was not likely to encourage Englishmen to pursue adventure in America, and for some time we hear of no more attempts. But in the meantime a great deal was being done towards fitting England to play her part in the settlement of America. During the past eighty years trade had increased greatly, as is shown by the number of commercial treaties with foreign towns, and of corporations of English merchants in many of the great European cities, and foreign trade was almost sure to bring the pursuit of navigation with it. Moreover, Henry VIII. did a great deal to further this. For though his misdeeds in other ways were very great, yet, when his passions did not lead him astray, he

was a wise king, and one that sought the good of his country; and he clearly saw that the strength of England must lie in her ships. And all those great deeds that were done by Englishmen in the reign of his daughter Elizabeth, both on the seas and in distant lands, were in a great measure due to Henry's energy and foresight. For he not only built large ships, but he saw that ships, however good, would be useless without skilled seamen; and he founded three colleges on the model of one that already existed in Spain to train up pilots and sailors. Though this bore no great fruit in his lifetime, the good of it was seen in the next generation; for in 1549, in the reign of Henry's son Edward, Sebastian Cabot, who, it may be said, was



SEBASTIAN CABOT.

the first great English navigator, was made Grand Pilot of England, and planned great enterprises. English ships soon began to sail in every quarter, and England became as great on the sea as either Portugal or Spain. Voyages were made to Guinea to trade in gold and precious stones, and unhappily too in negro slaves. And great discoveries were made in the northern seas. For English ships sailed round the northern point of Norway and to Archangel, and Englishmen traveled by this way to the Russian court

at Moscow, and even to Persia. But as yet nothing was done in the direction of America. When at last a voyage was made hither, it was rather by chance than by design. For, in 1576, Martin Frobisher, a west-country sea-captain, sailed northward, thinking to find a passage to Asia round the northern coast of America. He did not, however, get further than that gulf to the north of Labrador called Frobisher Straits. But though he failed in his main object, he brought back what was more valued than even a passage to Asia would have been. A stone which he had found was reported to contain gold. The stories of the Spanish conquest had set England, like all the rest of Europe, mad after gold; and immediately a company was formed to explore the supposed gold country. Frobisher was sent out again, and came back with a great cargo of what was believed to be ore. Queen Elizabeth then took up the scheme. A third and larger expedition was sent out in fifteen ships, and it was arranged that a hundred men should be left there to form a settlement. In the arrangements for this voyage a mistake was made, which was often repeated afterwards, and which was a serious hindrance to the success, not only of the English colonies, but those of other nations. It was thought that men who were unfit to live at home would do for colonists, and accordingly a number of condemned criminals were sent out. The expedition was an utter failure; the sailors almost mutinied; one of the ships with provisions for the colony deserted, and it was found hopeless to attempt a settlement. The fleet was

loaded with ore, and sailed home. The ore proved worthless, and the whole attempt resulted in utter failure and disappointment to all concerned.

By this time there was a fresh motive for English voyages to America. From the beginning of Elizabeth's reign many Englishmen of good family had sailed the seas as pirates, especially attacking Spanish ships. And as English seamen grew more skilful, they ventured to harass the Spanish settlements on the coast of America, and to cut off the Spanish fleets as they came and went. Though many of the greatest and bravest Englishmen of that day took part in these voyages, it is impossible to justify them. Yet there was this much to be said in excuse, that the Spanish Inquisition not unfrequently seized Englishmen on Spanish soil, and punished them for no crime but their religion. It must be remembered too that the pope, who was the close ally of Spain, was ever hatching conspiracies against the Queen of England, and striving to stir up civil wars there, and it could hardly seem a crime to Englishmen to annoy and weaken Spain even by unlawful means. Thus there was much fighting between Englishmen and Spaniards on the seas, and on the American coast, though the countries were not avowedly at war.

In 1578, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a west-country gentleman of great learning and wisdom, seems to have bethought him of a scheme for injuring Spain by planting an English settlement on the coast of America to serve as a sort of outpost from which to attack the Spanish fleets. It is not quite certain that Gilbert was the author of this scheme, but there is great likelihood of it; and it is certain that after this time he got a patent, granting him leave to form a colony in America. He does not seem, however, to have been as skilful in carrying out his designs as in planning them, and this expedition, though sent out at great cost, was a complete failure and he himself a heavy loser. Four years later he renewed his attempt; this time he was somewhat more successful. For though one of his ships deserted him at the very outset, he reached America, landed on the coast of Newfoundland, and took possession of the country in the Queen's name. He made no further attempt at a settlement, partly from the character of his men, who were lawless and disorderly, and thought only of getting on and making attempts at piracy. Before long another ship deserted and reduced the fleet to three, and of these one was wrecked with a load of ore thought to contain gold. Last of all, the smallest vessel, the *Squirrel*, of only ten tons, in which Gilbert himself sailed, went down, and one ship alone made its way back to England. Though Gilbert's attempt ended in utter failure, yet his name should ever be held in honor as the man who led the way in the English settlement of America, and who forfeited his life in that cause from which his countrymen afterwards gained such honor and reward.

Gilbert's scheme was taken up by a man fitter for such a task. His half-

brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, was probably the greatest Englishman in an age unusually rich in great men. There certainly have been many better men, and there have been men too who were greater in one special way; but there scarcely ever has been any one equally distinguished in so many different ways. Of the various careers open to a man in that day—learning, war, statesmanship, navigation—Raleigh pursued all, and excelled in



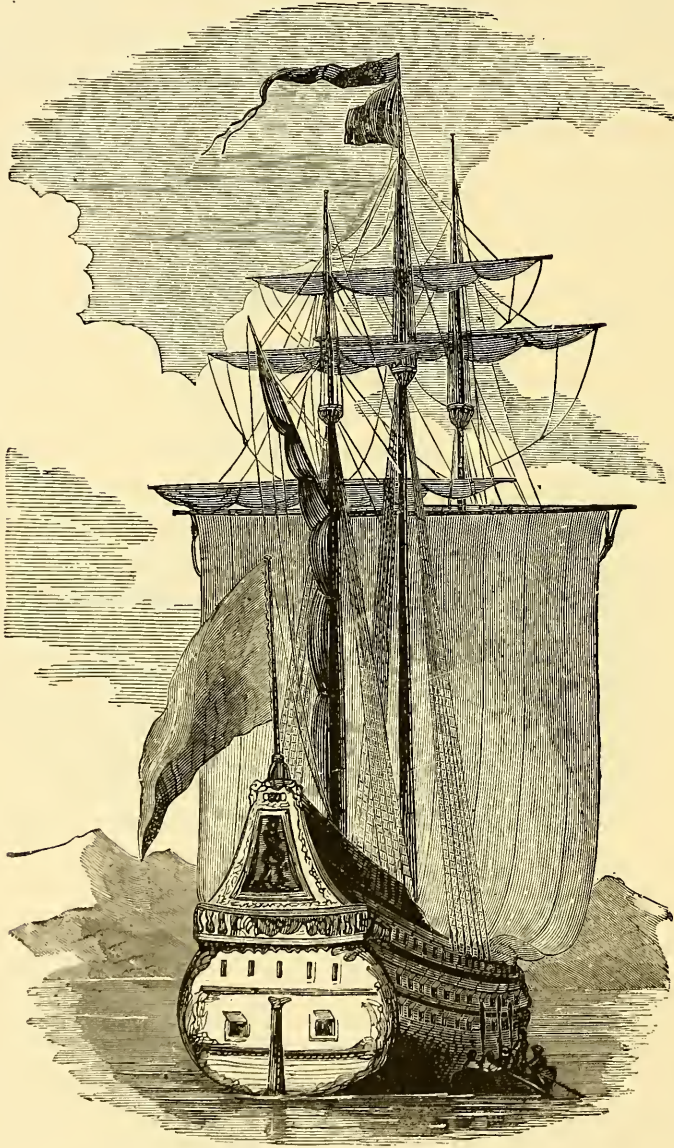
SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

all. As colonization was one of the great undertakings possible in that age, Raleigh entered upon that. There he showed his wisdom beyond all who had gone before him. Except perhaps the French settlers in Florida, no one had thought of planting settlements save with an eye to gold and silver; for Gilbert's was hardly so much a regular settlement as an outpost against Spain. But Raleigh, though he probably had mines in view, yet took care to settle his colony where it might maintain itself by agriculture, and enrich both itself and England by manufacture and trade. In 1584 he obtained a patent in precisely the same terms as Gilbert's, and sent out two sea-captains, Amidas and Barlow, to explore. They landed much further south than Gilbert, where climate and soil were both better. The natives received them with great kindness and hospitality, and two accompanied them back to England. Amidas and Barlow brought home a

glowing account of the land they had found, and the Queen named it Virginia. Next year Raleigh sent out a hundred and eight settlers. Sir Richard Grenville, one of the greatest sea-captains of the age, was in command of the fleet. But he was only to see them established, and then to leave them under the command of Ralph Lane, a soldier of some note. Heriot, a friend of Raleigh, and a man of great scientific learning, was sent out to examine the country. The colony was established in an island called Roanoke, off what is now the coast of North Carolina. At the very outset a mishap occurred which afterwards did no small harm to the settlement. As Grenville was exploring the country, an Indian stole a silver cup from the English. In revenge Grenville, who seems to have been of a severe and somewhat cruel temper, burnt an Indian village. Up to this time the Indians had appeared friendly, but henceforth the settlers had to be on their guard. In August, Grenville sailed home, leaving Lane in full command. Instead of getting his settlement into good order and making arrangements for building houses, growing corn, and the like, Lane almost at once set off with a party in quest of mines. They suffered great hardships, and, after being driven by lack of food to eat their dogs, at length returned without having made any discovery. Lane on his return found his settlement in great danger. The Indians, emboldened by his absence, were plotting against the colony, and would have assailed them unawares, had not one more friendly than the rest disclosed the plot to Lane. Though not a very wise governor, Lane was a bold and able soldier. He at once fell upon the Indians, killing fifteen of them, and thereby prevented an attack. But though the settlers were saved from immediate danger, their prospects were very gloomy. They were suffering from lack of food; the Indians were no longer their friends, and they began to fear that Grenville, who was to have brought them supplies, would not return. While they were in these difficulties, an English fleet appeared on its way back from a raid on the Spanish coast. Drake, the commander of the fleet, fitted out a ship for the settlers with a hundred men and provisions for six months, but just as it was ready a storm arose, and it was driven out to sea. Another attempt was made to send a ship to their relief, but the harborage was insufficient and the attempt was given up. At last the settlers in despair resolved to embark in Drake's fleet, and by the end of July, 1586, they landed in Portsmouth. A few days after they had sailed, a ship reached Virginia, sent out by Raleigh with provisions. After searching in vain for the settlers, it returned to England. About a fortnight later, Grenville arrived with three ships well provisioned. Having spent some time in seeking for the settlement he landed fifteen men with supplies for two years, to keep possession of the country, and sailed home.

All these disappointments did not withhold Raleigh from another and

more determined attempt. In 1587 he sent out a fresh party of settlers. One White was to be governor, with a council of twelve assistants, and the settlement was to be called the City of Raleigh. Hitherto the Indians had



A SHIP OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

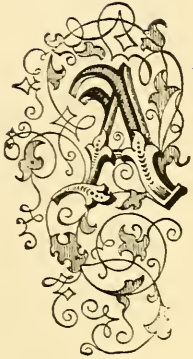
received the English in friendship, but now they attacked the settlers at their first landing, and killed one of the assistants. In August two noteworthy events occurred: Manteo, one of the natives who had returned with Amidas and Barlow, was christened; and the wife of one Dare bore a daughter, the first child of English parents born in the New World. Soon

after this, White went to England to get supplies. Raleigh immediately fitted out a fleet under the command of Grenville. Before it could sail, tidings came that the Spanish Armada was ready to attack England, and every ship and sailor that could be put on the sea was needed. Nevertheless Raleigh contrived to send out White with two small vessels. But instead of relieving the colony, the crew betook themselves to piracy against the Spaniards, and, after sundry mishaps, returned to England without ever having reached Virginia. Raleigh had now spent forty thousand pounds on his Virginia colony, and had got absolutely nothing in return. Moreover, he had just got a large grant of land in Ireland, and needed all his spare time and money for that. Accordingly in March, 1589, he sold all his rights in the Virginia plantation to a company. At the same time he showed his interest in the colony by a gift of one hundred pounds, to be spent in the conversion of the natives. The new company was slow in sending out relief, and nothing was done till late in that year. White then sailed with three ships. This fleet repeated the same folly which had undone the last expedition, and went plundering among the Spanish islands. At last, after much delay, White reached Virginia. The settlers had left the spot where White had placed them, and as had been agreed, they had cut upon a tree the name of the place, Croatan, whither they had gone. There some traces of their goods were seen, but they themselves could not be found anywhere. Though Raleigh had no longer any share in the settlement, he did not cease to take an interest in it, and sent out at least two more expeditions, one as late as 1602, in the bare hope of recovering the colonists, or at least of getting some tidings of them. A vague rumor was afterwards heard that some of them had been taken prisoners by the Indians and kept as slaves, but nothing certain was ever known of them from the day that White left America.

Thus, by the end of the sixteenth century, Spain had on each coast of America a territory several thousand miles in length, with large and beautiful cities, and yielding in gold and silver alone more than sixty thousand pounds a year, while England had not so much as a single fishing-village. Yet the last fifty years had done much towards training Englishmen for the task of colonization. They had learnt familiarity with the sea and with distant lands, and they had discovered that the Spaniards were not, as they had once seemed, invincible. The men who had conquered the Armada, and had even plundered Spanish ships and towns on the American coast, felt that they could surmount difficulties which had not baffled Cortez and Pizarro. Englishmen in the sixteenth century did not establish a single lasting settlement in America, but they did much toward showing how America might be explored and colonized by the next generation.

CHAPTER III.

VIRGINIA.



AFTER the failure of White's expedition, no further attempt at settlement was made for eighteen years. Gradually, however, new causes arose to make colonization important. Hitherto distant settlements had been planned chiefly to enrich the mother country by mines and trade, or to molest the Spanish colonies. But now men began to see that the newly discovered lands might be valuable as a home for those who could find neither work nor means of livelihood in England. The beginning of the seventeenth century was a time when this need was specially felt. During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries there had been great pestilences and famines, which had kept down the numbers of the people, and, except during special times of scarcity, there had been no lack of food. But during the sixteenth century the population had increased greatly, and there was neither work nor wages enough for all. Two things especially had helped to cause this. Wool trade and sheep farming had greatly increased, and much land which was formerly tilled had been turned into pasture, and thus many laborers had been thrown out of work. Besides, the breaking up of religious houses by Henry VIII. had cut off another means whereby many were maintained. Thus the land was full of needy and idle men ready for any ill deed. In this strait men began to think of the rich and uninhabited lands beyond the sea as offering a support for those who could find none at home. In one way, the prospects of colonization might seem changed for the worse. Elizabeth, who was now dead, had always looked on all distant adventures with favor, and honored and encouraged those who undertook them. But her successor, James, was of a timid temper, and had no pleasure in such things, but rather distrusted them as likely to strengthen the free spirit of his subjects. Moreover, he was specially attached to Spain, and valued its friendship beyond that of any other country. And as the Spaniards always did their utmost to keep any other nation from settling in America, they would not fail to prejudice James against such attempts. One thing, however, helped to reconcile him to schemes for colonization. It was understood from the first that the colonies were entirely under the control of the King and Privy Council, and that Parliament had no power of interfering in their concerns.

As might be expected, with this difference in the temper of the sovereign, the spirit of the nation, or at least, of the leading men in the nation, was somewhat changed too. There were no longer men like Frobisher, and Gilbert, and Grenville, who loved adventure for its own sake, and readily undertook long and costly voyages and risked great dangers, for distant and uncertain hopes of gain. In reality, however, this change was favorable to colonization. For it was the love of adventure and the desire to achieve some brilliant success by discovering mines or unknown seas, or by piracy against the Spaniards, which caused the failure of all the early attempts. So that settlements made with soberer views, though they might not be undertaken so eagerly or promise such brilliant results, were more likely to enjoy lasting success.

In 1602 and the three following years voyages of discovery were sent out. The coast of America to the north of Chesapeake Bay was explored, and a favorable report brought back. The failures of Gilbert and Raleigh showed that a colony was too great an undertaking for a single man to carry out successfully. The northern expeditions in the previous century sent out by the Russian Company had been more prosperous. Accordingly in 1606 a company was formed for the establishment of two settlements in America. The Northern colony was to be managed by gentlemen and merchants from the west of England; the Southern by Londoners. A charter was obtained from the king granting to each a tract on the coast at whatever spot it chose to settle, the Northern colony between thirty-four and forty-one degrees of latitude, the Southern between thirty-eight and forty-five. At the same time it was provided that the colonies were to be one hundred miles apart. Each was to have a tract of fifty miles along the coast on each side of the settlement, and all islands within one hundred miles of the coast; and no other English colony was to be founded on the mainland behind them without express permission. Each was to be governed by a President and Council of thirteen in America, while these were to be under the control of a Council in England. The members of these Councils and the two Presidents were to be appointed by the King. At the same time James drew up certain articles for the government of the colonies. All criminal cases involving life and death were to be tried by a jury; smaller offences by the President. The President and Council of each colony had power to make ordinances; but these must agree with the laws of England, and were not to become law till approved of by the Sovereign or the Council at home. The Sovereign was also to issue such orders as from time to time should seem desirable. There was to be no private industry in the colony for the first five years, but the settlers were to bring all the fruit of their labor into a common store, whence food and other necessities would be provided in return.

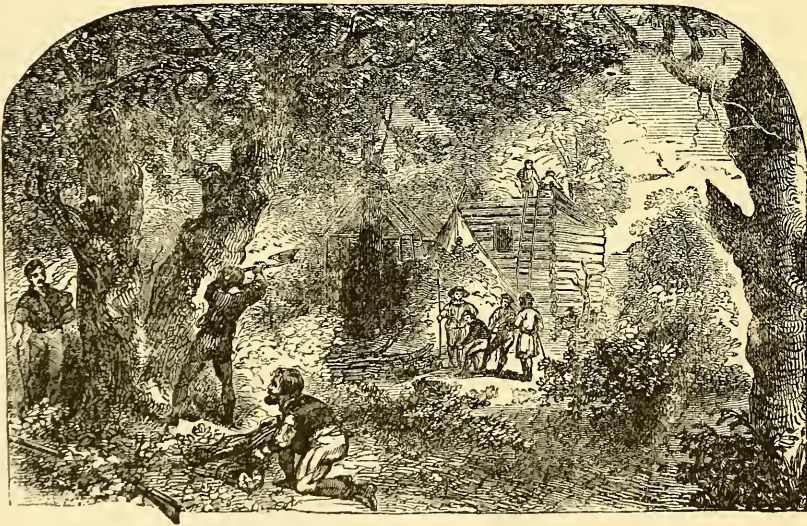
In December, 1606, the Southern colony set out. Three ships sailed with more than one hundred emigrants. By an ill-judged arrangement, the list of the Council was not to be opened till they landed. The Council was then to elect a Governor.



JOHN SMITH

Thus during the voyage there was no one with regular and settled authority. Among the colonists was one John Smith, an English yeoman by birth, who had spent his life as a soldier of fortune. Europe in that age swarmed with adventurers, but few of them had gone through so many strange chances as this man. He had served in the Low Countries; he had been captured by Barbary pirates; he had fought against the Turks in Hungary; he was left for dead on the battlefield; he then escaped from a Turkish prison

into Russia, and at length returned to England. Such a man was likely enough to be of an unquiet temper, and before the fleet had been out six weeks he was confined on suspicion of mutiny. On the 26th of April the colonists landed in Chesapeake Bay and founded a settlement, which they



BUILDING JAMESTOWN.

called Jamestown. The Council then elected Wingfield to be President. He was a man of good birth and some military experience, but proud and self-willed, and indifferent to the friendship and esteem of those under him. Everything now went wrong. The settlers themselves were idle and thriftless, and would not work as long as the supplies which they brought out

lasted. Moreover, they found some earth which they fancied contained gold, and all their time was spent in working at this. The natives were friendly, but Newport, the captain of the ship, by his foolish liberality to the Indian king, Powhatan, made him hold the English goods cheap, and so prevented the settlers from buying corn as easily as they might have done. But for Smith's energy the colony could hardly have existed. He cruised about the coast and explored the country, either conciliating or overawing the natives, and getting abundant supplies of corn from them. As might have been expected, Smith and Wingfield soon quarreled. We have only the accounts of this affair written by each of them, so it is hard to tell the rights of the case. Wingfield, however, himself admitted the great services done by Smith to the colony, and we find Smith long afterwards enjoying the favor and confidence of men connected with Virginia. The quarrel ended by Wingfield being deposed. Smith did not at once become President, but he was practically the head of the colony. For a short time things went on better. The settlers built twenty houses, sowed some ground, set up a regular factory for trade with the Indians, and made some tar and other merchandise. But soon they fell back into their old state. So badly off were they for food, that they were forced to break up into three bodies and settle in different parts. Some even ran off to the Indians and lived among them.

In spite of the evil tidings which came from the colony, and the disappointment of all their hopes of gain, the company in England were not discouraged. Hitherto they had only been a private association for trade, while all the government of the colony was in the hands of the King and the two Councils appointed by him. But in 1609 the company obtained a charter from the King, forming them into a corporation, with a Treasurer and a Council to manage their affairs and those of the colony in Virginia. They were to make laws for the colony and to appoint officers. The company now included many of the greatest men of the age—amongst others, the philosopher Lord Bacon—and most of the great London trading companies held shares in it.

The new company at once sent out an expedition on a larger scale than the last. Nine ships sailed with five hundred settlers, under the command of Sir Thomas Gates, an experienced soldier, who had distinguished himself in the Low Countries, and Sir George Somers, one of the bravest of the American adventurers in the days of Elizabeth. Lord Delaware was appointed Governor of the colony, and was to follow soon after. Unluckily, before the fleet reached Virginia, the ship in which Gates and Somers sailed got separated from the rest and was cast by a storm on the Bermuda Islands. Thus the new colonists arrived without any proper head. The state of the colony now was worse than ever. The new settlers were for the most part the very scum of the earth: men sent out to the New World because they

were unfit to live in the Old. They were idle and mutinous, and utterly despised Smith's authority. West, Lord Delaware's brother, whose position might have given him some authority over them, fell sick, and to crown their misfortunes, Smith met with an accident which obliged him to return to England. The Indians did not actually attack them, but they were known to be plotting against the colony. While things were in this state, Gates and Somers arrived in a pinnace which they had built in the Bermudas with their own hands. The state of the colony seemed so desperate that they determined to break it up and return, with all the settlers, to England. It seemed as if this attempt would end, like Raleigh's, in utter failure. But just as they were all embarked, Lord Delaware arrived with three ships well supplied. He at once resettled the colony, and forced the colonists to till the ground and fortify the settlement against the Indians. From this time the history of Virginia as a settled country may be considered to begin.

Lord Delaware did not stay long in the colony, but left it under the government of Sir Thomas Dale, who, like Gates, had served as a soldier in the Netherlands. He was an able but a stern ruler. He enforced a code of laws copied in many points from the military laws of the Low Countries, so severe that it is wonderful how any community ever endured them. A few of the harshest will serve as specimens. A man was to be put to death for killing any cattle, even his own, without leave of the governor; so was any one who exported goods without leave. A baker who gave short weight was to lose his ears, and on the third offence to be put to death. A laundress who stole linen was to be flogged. Attendance at public worship was enforced by severe penalties. We must not forget, however, that most of the colonists were no better than criminals; indeed, the colony had got so evil a name in England by its disorders and misadventures that few respectable men would go out.

The settlers were of various classes: all who subscribed twelve pounds ten shillings to the company, or sent out a laborer at their own expense, got shares of land—at first a hundred acres; afterwards, as the colony improved, fifty acres each. These farmed their land either by their own labor or by hired servants, and formed the class afterwards called planters. But the greatest part of the land was in the hands, not of private persons, but of the company itself. This was cultivated by public servants who had been sent out at the company's expense, and who were in great part maintained out of a public store, but were also allowed each a patch of ground of his own, upon which to support himself. Some of these public servants were employed in handicrafts and in producing commodities to send home. Moreover, men of special skill, public officers, clergymen, physicians, and the like, were maintained at the company's cost in return for their services.

Under the government of Dale the condition of the colony improved. One important tribe of Indians, the Chickahominies, made a league with the settlers, and in return for some small presents of hatchets and red cloth, acknowledged themselves English subjects, and undertook to pay a yearly tribute of corn. The chief body of the Indians, under a great and powerful chief, Powhatan, were also closely allied with the English. In 1612, one Captain Argall, an unscrupulous man with influence in the company, by a knavish scheme with Japazaus, an Indian chief, kidnapped Pocahontas, the favorite daughter of Powhatan. During her captivity among the English she became converted to Christianity and married John Rolfe, a leading man among the settlers. Thus from the affair which seemed at one time likely to embroil the colony with the Indians came a friendship which lasted as long as Powhatan lived.



POCAHONTAS.

The next year Dale departed. The settlers showed that they needed his strong hand over them by falling at once into idleness and improvidence. The new governor, Yeardley, was an upright man, just and humane in his dealings both with the settlers and the natives, but wanting in energy. One great source of mischief which Dale had hardly been able to keep in check was the excessive planting of tobacco. This crop was so profitable that the colonists gave all their time and ground to it, and neglected the needful cultivation of corn. Meanwhile the affairs of the company at home were mismanaged. The treasurer, Sir Thomas Smith, was either negligent or dishonest. Emigrants were sent out utterly unprovided with necessities, and the supplies forwarded to the colonists were almost worthless. Under Yeardley's successor, Argall, matters were yet worse. He plundered both the company and the colonists in every way that he could. He took the stores, the servants, and the ships of the company for his own private profit and use. Under his rule the state of the colony became utterly wretched. Though more than a thousand persons had been sent thither, less than six hundred were left. At one place, Henrico, where there had been forty settlers, there was left but one house, and at Jamestown there were but ten or twelve. The condition of the private planters seems to have been better, and it was most likely this which encouraged the company to persevere and

to make one more attempt to bring the colony to a prosperous condition. In 1618, a change was made in the company; Sir Thomas Smith was deposed from the treasurership, and in his place Sir Edwin Sandys appointed. He was an able and upright man, and a leading member of the party that was beginning to resist the arbitrary policy of the king in political and religious matters. Side by side with this a change of even greater and more lasting importance was made in the colony itself. Argall was deposed and Yeardley sent out in his place. His first act, no doubt by the wish of the company, was to form an independent legislature in Virginia. He called an Assembly almost exactly modeled after the English parliament. It consisted of the Council and a body of representatives, two from each of the eleven plantations into which the colony was divided. These representatives were elected by the freeholders. The Assembly so formed imposed taxes, considered petitions, and passed several laws for the management of the colony. From this time the Assembly met, if not every year, at least at frequent intervals, and the Virginians, though nominally dependent on the king and the company, had in most things an independent government of their own.

Under the new system the colony grew and flourished; vines were planted, and manufactories of iron and glass were set on foot. Guest-houses were built, in spots carefully chosen for healthfulness, for the emigrants when first they landed. The company exerted itself to supply the colony with clergymen and schoolmasters; business so increased that it was necessary to have law courts in the different plantations. But the growing prosperity of the colony was soon cruelly checked. From various causes the settlers lived for the most part, not in villages, but in single houses, each with its own farm about it. This was due partly to the system which gave every shareholder a hundred acres of ground for each share, so that many of the planters owned large estates, and partly too to the fact that the country was full of navigable rivers, so that traveling was very easy, and the inconvenience of separation little felt. The colony was thus more exposed to the Indians; but that danger was little feared, since the relations between them and the settlers seemed thoroughly friendly. The Indians came and went among the English, and were allowed to go in and out of their houses as they pleased. Many benevolent schemes had been proposed for converting and training up the Indian children. Unluckily for the English, Powhatan, who had ever been their fast friend, died in 1618. His successor, Opechancanough, was for some time suspected of enmity to the settlers. Yet they do not seem to have been in the least on their guard against an attack. In 1622 an Indian chief murdered an English planter, in revenge for which he was killed by two of the planter's servants. This supplied Opechancanough with a pretext for stirring up his people against the settlers. Till the very moment

that they were ready for the attack the Indians kept up every appearance of friendship, and then suddenly fell upon the settlers and murdered every one they could. Had it not been that one converted Indian gave warning to the English, few would have escaped. As it was, about three hundred and fifty perished. A few years before this would have been fatal, but the colony now numbered between two and three thousand. Public works were



INDIAN ATTACK UPON SETTLERS.

hindered, and the settlers were forced to abandon some of their outlying plantations and draw closer together, but the evil effects soon passed off.

An event even more important than the massacre was at hand. The king, though he granted such ample powers to the company, seems always to have looked on it with some jealousy. This was due, in a great measure, to the intrigues of Gondomar, the Spanish ambassador. For the Spaniards naturally dreaded the growth of English colonies in the New World, lest they should become as dangerous to the Spanish colonies as England had been to Spain in the Old World. Hence there was perpetual intriguing against the company, and Gondomar, who, by bribing right and left, had gained great influence in England, did all he could against it. As the leading men in the company were of that party who chiefly opposed the king, James was easily persuaded that the company was a training-school for a

seditionous parliament. Moreover, Sir Thomas Smith, who had been displaced from the office of treasurer, headed a disaffected party within the company, so that it was divided against itself, and got an ill name for squabbling and misconduct. Besides, the news of the massacre did much to make men think lightly of the colony and distrust its management. In the colony too there were disaffected and discontented people, who spoke evil of the company. But when the king sent out commissioners to inquire into the charges brought against the company, all the serious accusations fell to the ground. Nevertheless, the overthrow of the company was determined on, and in 1623 they were summoned by an order of the Privy Council to surrender their charter, in order that the management of the colony might be handed over to a Council appointed by the king. The company at once refused to yield. Accordingly a writ was issued against the company, called a writ of *Quo warranto*, by which any corporation can be compelled to show good cause for its existence. At the same time they were deprived of the power of defending themselves by the seizure of all their papers. The details of the trial are not known, but the judges of that time were so subservient to the Court that any matter in which the king was known to take an interest was likely to be decided as he wished. Chief Justice Ley, who had to decide the case, gave it against the company. Thus the Virginia Company came to an end after a career of sixteen years.

Few corporations have in so short a time done so much good; for from the time that they were set free from the evil government of Sir Thomas Smith, they seem steadily to have sought the good of the colony rather than their own gain. Yet in all probability Virginia gained by their dissolution, for under the king the colony was left to itself, and learnt independence and self-reliance, as it hardly could have done under the company.

The effect of the dissolution was to leave the colony entirely dependent on the king. In May, 1625, he issued a proclamation settling the condition of Virginia. It was to be governed by two Councils, one in England and the other in Virginia, both to be appointed by the king, and by a governor also appointed by the king. The colonists had no charter, and no security of any kind against arbitrary government. Practically, however, things went on as before. The Assembly met every year, and enacted measures, which were then sent to England, and, if approved of by the king, became laws. The governor and all the chief officials received fixed salaries, so that they were in no way dependent on the Assembly. In general matters the colony seems to have prospered under the new system. By 1629 the number of settlers had increased, in spite of the massacre, to more than four thousand. Timber and iron were exported, and there seemed a likelihood of vines being successfully cultivated. The damage done by the massacre was soon repaired, and friendship with the Indians restored. In 1635, a dispute arose

with the neighboring colony, Maryland, recently settled by Lord Baltimore. Harvey, the governor of Virginia, took part with Lord Baltimore against the Virginians. Enraged at this, the people rose against Harvey, arrested him, and sent him to England. He, however, defended himself successfully from the charges brought against him, and was restored. In 1639 proposals were set on foot in England for restoring the company, but these came to nothing, chiefly through the opposition offered by the colonists. They no doubt found that they enjoyed greater independence under the king, and feared that the restoration of the company would revive old claims to land, and thus cause confusion.

When the civil war broke out in England, it seemed at first as if Virginia would be a stronghold of the Royalists. Berkeley, the successor of Harvey, was a staunch partisan of the king, and so were many of the chief inhabitants. During the supremacy of the Commonwealth the colonies were placed under the government of a special Commission, with the Earl of Warwick at its head. In October, 1649, nine months after the death of Charles I., the Virginia Assembly passed an Act making it high treason to speak disrespectfully of the late king, to defend his execution, or to question Charles II.'s right to the crown. Nevertheless, as soon as a Parliamentary fleet reached the colony, the Virginians at once surrendered. The Parliamentary Commission granted moderate terms: the Governor and Council were allowed a year in which to dispose of their estates and leave the colony, and no one was to be punished for any act or word on behalf of the king. The supremacy of Parliament does not seem in any way to have altered the condition of the colony at the time. It had, however, one very important and lasting effect. Hitherto it had been an acknowledged principle of law that Parliament had no control over the colonies. In 1624 the House of Commons had attempted to interfere on behalf of the Virginia Company, but were forbidden by the king to proceed further in the matter. They murmured, but gave way. In 1628 they sent a petition to the king on behalf of the Bermudas. But in this they fully acknowledged that the entire government of the colonies ought to be in the hands of the king. But after the death of the king, Parliament had in a great measure assumed his rights and power, and so the government of the colonies naturally passed over to them. Thus it became an established principle that Acts of Parliament were binding on the colonies in the same way as on the mother country, and after the Restoration this principle still remained in force. The chief enactment made by Parliament during the Commonwealth with reference to the colonies was that no goods should be carried to and from the colonies except in English or colonial ships. After the Restoration this was re-enacted, under the name of the Navigation Law. Its object was to confine the colonial trade to England and to encourage English shipping. Another Act was

passed, three years later, prohibiting the importation of foreign goods to the colonies, unless they had been first landed in England. To make up for these restrictions, the planting of tobacco in England was forbidden, and thus the colonists enjoyed a monopoly of the tobacco trade. The Navigation Law was not strictly enforced, and therefore did not press hardly on the colonies. Nevertheless, it established the principle that Acts of Parliament were binding on the colonies, although their inhabitants had no voice in electing Parliament, and very little power of making their wants known to it.

The Restoration caused as little stir in Virginia as the overthrow of the monarchy had done. No attempt was made to resist it, and Berkeley was



A VIRGINIA FOREST.

quietly reinstalled as governor. The colony seems about this time to have reached its most prosperous state. The number of inhabitants had increased to forty thousand; of these, two thousand were negro slaves. Besides these there were many English convicts, who were condemned to serve as slaves for a certain time. Most of these were prisoners who had been sentenced to death, but whose punishment had been changed by special favor to transportation. In spite of the existence of this class, the colony seems to have been very free from crime. Houses were left open at night, and clothes allowed to hang on hedges in safety. This was probably due to the comfort and plenty that prevailed. A single man could, by his own labor, raise two hundred and fifty bushels of Indian corn in a year. Cattle required no

attention, but were turned out into the woods and throve there. The forests swarmed with game, and the rivers with fish. Ever since 1643 the relations with the Indians had been friendly; in that year war had broken out. The Indians were easily subdued; Opechancanough was captured and put to death, and a firm peace made with his successor. For nearly thirty years from that time the peace remained unbroken. During this period, various laws were passed for the protection of the Indians. Efforts were made to convert and to teach their children, and the English tried to civilize them by offering them cows as a reward for killing wolves. The colonists were forbidden by law to enslave the Indians or to buy land from them. In 1660, two settlers, men of high position, were fined fifteen thousand pounds of tobacco each, and were disqualified from holding any office in the colony, because they had unlawfully kept an Indian as a prisoner. At the same time another settler was disqualified in the same way, for cheating the Indians of some land.

The worst evils from which the colony suffered were the want of towns and of education. The first of these was due to various causes: many of the settlers had been landed gentry, and had a taste for large estates and for a country life. In the time of the company, there was no difficulty about acquiring large estates, since every share of twelve pounds ten shillings entitled the holder to fifty acres. After the dissolution of the company, the government seems to have been careless in its grants of land, and many men acquired estates far larger than they could properly manage. The number of rivers, and the ease with which the settlers could transport themselves and their goods from one place to another, favored this mode of life. The cultivation of tobacco and the use of slave labor also helped to bring this about. Slaves can seldom learn to cultivate more than one kind of crop; and as tobacco exhausts the soil, it was necessary to be always taking fresh land into cultivation, and leaving that which had been already tilled to recover. Thus each planter needed far more land than he would have done under a more thrifty system. Various attempts were made to establish towns, but they came to nothing; chiefly because every one wanted to have the town within easy reach of his own plantation. Thus the Assembly, with whom the arrangement of these matters lay, could never fix on a site. The result of this want of towns was that there were neither schools nor printing-presses, and that the people grew up for the most part utterly untaught. Moreover, the clergy, from whom some kind of training might have been expected, were for the most part ignorant men, and of low station.

About 1670 political discontent began to show itself. There were various causes for this: In 1655 a law had been passed restricting the right of voting at elections to landowners and householders, whereas before all

freemen had voted. This law was repealed in the next year, on the ground that it was unfair that persons should pay taxes and yet have no votes. In 1670 the same law was again enacted. Besides this, the governor had been gradually acquiring an undue share of power. It had been originally intended that the Council who were appointed by the king should be a check upon the governor. But the king depended mainly for his information as to the state of the colony on the governor. The result of this was that the appointment of the Council came to be made in reality by the governor; and instead of being a check upon him, they were his supporters. The clerk of the Assembly also found it to his interest to stand well with the governor, and for this object kept him informed as to all the doings of the Assembly; so that it was impossible for them to contrive any plan of action against the governor without his hearing of it. As all the important public officers were appointed by the governor, the whole control of affairs had passed into his hands; and as Berkeley was a man of harsh and arbitrary temper, this caused much discontent. Two things besides increased this feeling. In 1669 Charles II. granted the whole domain of Virginia to Lord Culpepper and Lord Arlington for thirty-one years. The chief fear was lest the new proprietors should claim land as unappropriated which had already been granted to private persons. As the grant gave them the right of appointing public surveyors, they were certain of a favorable decision in any question of disputed boundaries. The Assembly took fright at this, and sent over three agents to England to remonstrate against the grant. This agency was a cause of public expense, and so did something to increase the existing discontent. Moreover, Berkeley had recently enforced the laws against Non-conformists with severity, and many had been obliged to leave the colony, and probably many were left behind secretly disaffected. Thus everything was ready for a commotion, and it only needed some small event to set one on foot.

In 1675 a quarrel broke out between the settlers and two tribes of Indians, the Susquehannahs and the Doegs. These Indians stole some pigs to revenge themselves on one Matthews, a planter, who, as they said, had cheated them. The thieves were pursued, and some of them killed. The Indians then killed Matthews, his son, and two of his servants. Upon this, some planters, without authority from the governor, got together a force, and besieged one of the Indian forts. The Indians then sent six of their chiefs to make proposals for peace, but the settlers in their anger fell upon them and slew them. This enraged the Indians yet more, and an irregular warfare was carried on, in which three hundred of the English perished. The settlers then besought Berkeley to send out a force, but he refused. Thereupon one Bacon, a resolute and able man whom misfortune had made reckless, went against the Indians without any commission from Berkeley.



Devils of our Forefathers.



Five hundred men at once joined him. Berkeley thereupon proclaimed them rebels, and sent troops to arrest them. This only made Bacon's followers more obstinate, and at the election that autumn he was chosen as a member of the Assembly. When he came to Jamestown to take his seat, Berkeley at first opposed his entrance and tried to arrest him. Nevertheless, in a short time they were seemingly reconciled. Possibly this was, as was afterwards thought, a trick on Berkeley's part to get Bacon in his power. Various laws were then passed to remedy the abuses which had excited discontent. The right of voting was restored to all freemen, the fees of public offices were reduced, and Bacon was promised a commission against the Indians. But when the time came Berkeley refused to fulfil this promise. Thereupon Bacon left Jamestown, and in a few days returned with five hundred followers. Berkeley now granted the commission, and Bacon marched against the Indians. News, however, soon reached him that Berkeley had raised a force and was coming to attack him. Bacon thereupon made his followers swear to be faithful to him, and, even if troops were sent against them from England, to resist till such time as their grievances could be laid before the king: he then marched against Berkeley, who fled. Bacon then burnt down Jamestown, lest his enemy should take shelter there, and pursued Berkeley. But before any engagement could take place Bacon fell sick and died. There was no one to take his place; the rebel force fell to pieces, and was easily overcome. Berkeley used his victory mercilessly, putting rebels to death without due trial, and confiscating their estates before they were condemned. He was only stopped in these misdeeds by the arrival of three commissioners sent out by the king to inquire into the causes of the rebellion. Berkeley went to England, and died soon after, as was thought, of vexation. The rebellion was in one way a source of great loss to the colony. The agents who had been sent to England had just obtained from the king the promise of a charter, which amongst other privileges would have confined the right of levying taxes to the Assembly; but in consequence of the rebellion this was withdrawn, and none of the grievances against which the agents protested were redressed. In one respect Bacon and his followers had been clearly blameworthy: in their undistinguishing rage against the Indians, they had attacked a friendly tribe, and had driven their queen, who had been a faithful ally to the English, to flee into the woods at the risk of her life. Nevertheless, soon after Berkeley's departure a firm peace was made with all the Indians, and their relations with the settlers were thenceforth friendly.

Two governors who came soon after, Lord Culpepper and Lord Effingham, governed the colony worse than any that had gone before them. Lord Culpepper came out in 1680; he persuaded the Assembly to raise his salary from one thousand to two thousand pounds. It had been a custom

for the captains of ships to make certain presents to the governor: Culpeper changed these into fixed dues. In 1683 he left the colony. His successor, Lord Effingham, created new and unnecessary offices, and devised pretexts for exacting additional fees. Both of these governors claimed and exercised the right of repealing laws passed in the Assembly, by their own proclamation. The English Revolution of 1688, though it introduced no change into the constitution of Virginia, seems to have stopped, or at least greatly lessened, these evils. One new abuse, however, came in. Hitherto, the governor had always lived in Virginia; now it became the custom for him to be represented by a deputy in the colony. From 1704 to 1740 the Earl of Orkney was nominally governor, but during that long time he was represented by a deputy, who received eight hundred pounds a year out of the governor's salary. Thus the colony was taxed twelve hundred pounds a year for the maintenance of the governor, whom they never saw. The English government excused this on the ground that it would be of great service to the colony to have some man of high position in England to look after their interest: but as Lord Orkney was nearly the whole of the time away on foreign service, it can hardly be thought that he was of much use to the colony. The most important change introduced by the Revolution was the establishment of a college, called the College of William and Mary. Large subscriptions for this purpose were given by the colonists, as well as by Virginia merchants and other persons in England. Professorships were established, and a handsome building erected, after plans by Sir Christopher Wren.





PLYMOUTH ROCK.

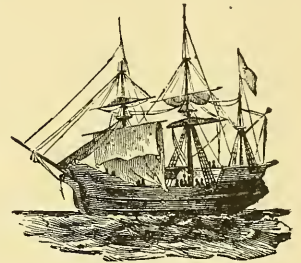
CHAPTER IV.

PLYMOUTH.

THE Virginia Company originally consisted, as we have seen, of two branches, one the South Virginia Company at London, the other the North Virginia Company at Plymouth. In 1607 the latter sent out forty-five settlers, who established themselves at the mouth of the river Kennebec. This attempt came to nothing. The winter was unusually cold; Popham, their leader, died, and the colony broke up. This failure kept Englishmen from making any attempt at settlement in that quarter for some years. Fishing voyages were made; and Smith, after his return from Virginia, explored the coast, gave it the name

of New England, and did his best to persuade rich men in England to plant a colony there. Besides, Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who had taken a leading part in fitting out the expedition of 1606, had several times sent out ships to explore the coast. But for fourteen years after Popham's failure no settlement was made. One reason possibly was, that the Virginia Company took off all who had money and energy to spend on such enterprises. The colonization of Virginia was, as we have already seen, brought about by the pressure of poverty and the lack of food and employment in England. The colonization of New England was due to a totally different cause, namely, the ill-treatment which a particular sect received from the English government. During the reign of Elizabeth the English Protestants were divided into two parties. There were those who thought that the Reformation had gone far enough, or even too far, and who wished to keep as much as possible, and in some cases even to restore, something of the ritual and teaching of the Roman Catholic Church. There were others who wanted to go much further than the English Church had yet gone, and to abolish many things which reminded them of the old connection with Rome. This party was itself again divided into various bodies. There were those who wished to maintain the system of Church-government by bishops, and only to change some of the forms of worship. Others wanted to introduce the Presbyterian system, that of government by elders, as established in Switzerland and France by Calvin and his followers, and in Scotland by John Knox. A third party, small and insignificant during the reign of Elizabeth, wished to introduce the Independent system which existed in some parts of Germany. Under this system each congregation was a separate body, having full control over its own religious affairs. Neither of these last named parties, the Presbyterian or the Independent, obtained much importance under Elizabeth. But as James I. and Charles I., and the leading men among the bishops in their reigns, showed no readiness to yield anything to the reforming party in the Church, many of those who had hitherto been in favor of keeping the existing Church-government, gradually went over to the Presbyterians or Independents. During the reign of Elizabeth several severe measures were passed against the Independents, prohibiting them from holding religious meetings. Under James, yet harsher measures were enacted. The result was to drive many of them to Holland, where full toleration was granted to all sects. Among these refugees was an Independent congregation from Scrooby, a village in Nottinghamshire. They fled in a body in 1608, under the guidance of their minister, Robinson, one of the best and wisest of the English Independents, and established themselves at Leyden. There they sojourned for more than ten years, and were joined by many of their friends from England, so that they grew to be a great congregation. But though they prospered, they

were not altogether satisfied with their abode in Holland. Their children were exposed to the temptations of a great city, and doubtless many longed for the quiet country life in which they had been bred. At length they bethought them of forming a settlement in America, to be a refuge from the temptations of the world, and perhaps the means of conveying Christianity to the heathen. They decided to settle, if they were allowed, as a separate community, on the lands of the Virginia Company. With this view they sent over to England two deputies to get a grant of land from the company and a charter from the king. The land was granted, but the charter was refused. The king, however, gave a general promise that, if they behaved peaceably, they should not be molested. At first they had some doubt about settling without a charter, but one of their leaders remarked, that "if there should be a purpose or desire to wrong them, though they had a seal as broad as the house floor, it would not serve the turn, for there would be means enough found to recall it or reverse it." On the 6th of September, 1620, a hundred and twenty of them, having crossed over from Leyden, set sail from Southampton in two vessels, the *Speedwell* and the *Mayflower*. At first everything seemed against them; before they had gone far, the *Speedwell* sprang a leak, and was obliged to return for repairs. On the next attempt, when they were three hundred miles from land, the *Speedwell* was found to be overmasted, and unfit for the voyage. They decided to divide into two companies, one of which should return, and the other proceed in the *Mayflower*.



THE MAYFLOWER.

On the 9th of November they sighted land. This proved to be Cape Cod, a promontory some one hundred and thirty miles north of the spot where they wished to settle; they then directed the master of the ship to sail south. This, however, he professed himself unable to do, and landed them inside the bay formed by Cape Cod and the mainland. They believed that he had been bribed by the Dutch, who traded with the Indians about the mouth of the river Hudson, and who did not wish to have any rivals there. As it turned out, the coast within the bay was a fitter spot for a weak colony. The Indians had a few years before captured the crew of a French vessel, and cruelly put them to death. One of the French had warned them that their crime would not go unpunished. Shortly after, a great plague fell upon them and swept off whole villages. This had a twofold effect: it weakened the Indians, and left much of their country desolate and empty for the new comers, and it made the savages believe that the God of the white men would punish any wrong done to them. But for this protection, a weak colony could hardly have escaped destruction by the Indians. In

other respects too, the spot was well-suited for a settlement; the soil was fairly fertile, there was good harborage for ships, and the climate, though severe in winter, was healthy. In fact it was, like England, a country less attractive and less rich in its resources than southern lands, but more fitted to call out energy and activity, and so to breed hardy and industrious citizens.

The first act of the settlers on landing was to constitute themselves a body politic, with power to make laws and ordinances for the management of their joint affairs. They then looked out for a suitable spot for a permanent settlement. They decided on a place with a harbor, cornfields, and running water, on the west side of the bay. There, on the 21st of December, they landed, calling the place "Plymouth," after the last English town they had left. As they had settled beyond the limits of the Virginia Company, their patent was useless; the land which they occupied was, however, in the possession of another company. Gorges and other leading men had, in 1620, obtained a charter from the king for the land which was to have been occupied by the North Virginia Company. This was, in fact, a revival of that company, and as the new company, like the old one, numbered among its members many west-countrymen, it was called the Plymouth Company. But it must be remembered that this Plymouth Company and Plymouth the Puritan Colony were two distinct bodies, and that neither in any way took its name from the other. In 1621 the colony obtained a patent from the company. This was not granted directly to the settlers themselves, but to a body of London merchants. These men formed a sort of smaller corporation under the Plymouth Company. They fitted out the colonists, and took the expense of sending them out. The shares were allotted to the colonists themselves, and to those who contributed money—one share to each emigrant, and one for every ten pounds invested. The colonists were to be provided with food and all other necessities from the common stock. The profits were to accumulate, and, at the end of seven years, to be divided among all the shareholders. These merchants seem to have gone into the matter merely as a question of profit, and to have had no special sympathy with the Puritans, and accordingly they dealt somewhat harshly with the colonists.

For the first few years the climate bore hard on the settlers, and the history of the colony is little more than one long story of suffering and endurance. The first winter the cold was so severe that out of a hundred settlers about half died, and of the rest all but six or seven were at one time ill. Slighter hardships had broken up the Virginia settlements under Lane and Somers. But the men of Plymouth were more enduring, and held on; the friendship of the Indians was of great service to them. The first meeting, a few days after the settlers landed, was hostile, and the English had to

use their guns in self-defence. But soon after they met with a savage who could speak English, and they soon made friends with Massasoit, the chief sachem in those parts. With him they made a firm league; two years later his life was saved by the medical skill of the English, and he was ever after their fast friend. The only show of enmity on the part of the Indians was made by a chief named Canonicus. He sent the English the skin of a snake full of arrows, as a sort of challenge. Bradford, the governor of Plymouth, stuffed the skin with powder and ball, and sent it back. The Indians seem to have taken the warning, and made no attack. After this, the settlers of Plymouth lived for many years at peace with their savage neighbors. One exception there was indeed, but that was due entirely to the misconduct of other English settlers. In 1622 one Weston obtained a patent from the Plymouth Company, and settled sixty men in Massachusetts some thirty or forty miles north of Plymouth. They proved idle and disorderly, and instead of working, plundered the Indians, and so endangered the peace between them and the Plymouth settlers. Some trifling hostilities broke out and a few Indians were killed, but peace was soon restored. Weston's colony, in less than two years from its foundation, broke up, greatly oppressed by famine, but partly from dread of the Indians. Somewhat later, one Captain Wollaston set up a plantation near the site of Weston's. This too failed, and Wollaston, with most of his men, departed to Virginia. The rest stayed under the leadership of one Morton, a dissolute and riotous man. He sold arms and ammunition to the Indians, and by this and other misdeeds became so dangerous to the men of Plymouth that they at length arrested him and sent him home. At a later day, as we shall see, he returned to America, repeated his offences, and was again banished.

Partly, perhaps, through these hindrances, the colony for a while did not prosper. For the first five years the settlers had no cattle, and when their corn was spent, they had often to live wholly on shell-fish. At the end of four years the settlement numbered only a hundred and eighty persons, dwelling in thirty-two houses, and the shareholders at home grumbled at the small profits. In 1627 a change was made, greatly for the good of the colony; the settlers themselves bought up the whole stock of the company, paying for it by instalments; they had to raise the money at high interest. Nevertheless, the knowledge that they were working for their own profit so quickened their industry, that in six years from that time they had paid off all their debts and had become the independent owners of their own land, houses, and live stock. One important result of this was the rapid increase of numbers. Hitherto the new comers were only such men as the shareholders thought likely to make good colonists and were willing to send out. Now it was free to the settlers to choose their own associates, and accordingly many of the English Puritans joined them. By 1643 the colony num-

bered three thousand inhabitants, divided among eight towns. Moreover, the members of the Plymouth Company sent out fishing and exploring expeditions, and formed trading stations along the coast, and these opened fresh markets for the produce of Plymouth.

The process by which Plymouth grew was quite different from that which we have seen in Virginia. The settlers did not spread over a wide surface of country, living in solitary plantations, but formed townships. As their numbers increased and outgrew the original settlements, they moved off in bodies, each occupying an allotted portion of ground, of which a part was held in common. Thus there were no great estates, as in Virginia, and all the towns, or, as we should rather call them, villages, were within easy reach of one another. For some while they did not extend inland, but only along the coast, so that of the eight townships first formed seven were by the sea. There were various causes for this difference between Virginia



A PURITAN.

and Plymouth. One was, that the Puritans made it a great point to worship frequently together, and so could not bear to be widely scattered. Another was, that the Plymouth settlers were not, like many of the Virginians, taken from the landed gentry, and so they had no special taste for large landed estates, even if they could have got them. Moreover, at that time, among the English yeomen and cottagers much of the land was still held and farmed in common by villages, so that the system of townships fell in with the home usages of the colonists. Moreover, there was no such means of passing from one part of the country to another and of carrying goods as was afforded by the rivers in Virginia, and the

fear of the Indians served to keep the settlers together. It is very important to bear all this in mind, since it was the leading point of difference, not only between Virginia and Plymouth, but between the southern and northern colonies. The former for the most part consisted of scattered plantations, the latter of closely connected townships.

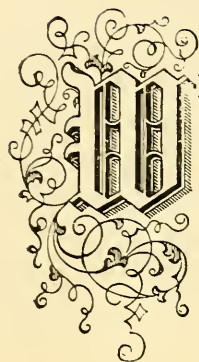
The government of Plymouth consisted of a Governor, a body of Assistants, and an Assembly. The Governor and Assistants were elected by the whole body of freemen. The Assembly was at first what is called primary, that is to say, it consisted of the whole body of freemen meeting themselves, not sending their representatives. The first freemen were the original settlers, afterwards those who in each town were admitted by the body of freemen already existing. As may be easily supposed, when the number of townships increased, it was found inconvenient for the whole body of freemen to meet together for public business. Accordingly, in a few years the system of representation, the same by which the English House of Commons is formed, was introduced. Every township sent two repre-

sentatives, and the body so returned was, with the Governor and Assistants, the General Court. The primary Assembly of all the freemen still kept its power of enacting laws, but this gradually fell into disuse, and the whole government passed over to the General Court. Thus we see that in the two earliest American colonies, the government was modeled on that of England. But there was this important difference between the two: in Virginia the system of government was originally copied from the English constitution; while in Plymouth it was at first quite different, and became like it only by gradually fitting itself to the wants of the people. This change is of special importance, since it shows the way in which, in many free communities in different parts of the world, a representative assembly has taken the place of a primary one. But in most cases this change has taken place in such early times, that our knowledge of it is vague and imperfect. The American colonies furnish almost the only instance in which we can trace the whole process. After this change the Governor and Assistants were still elected by the whole body of freemen. The Assistants sat as judges in criminal and civil cases, with a jury of freemen, and generally managed public business. So little ambition was there in the state, and so small was the profit and honor attached to the public offices, that a law was passed imposing a fine on any one who refused the place of Governor or Assistant when elected. For the first sixteen years the colony lived under the laws of England. In 1636 a special committee was appointed to help the Governor and Assistants in drawing up a code of laws. These laws were simple in their character, not copied from the laws of England, but suited to the wants of a small community living in a plain manner. Cases too trifling to come before the Assistants were tried by magistrates in the different townships.



CHAPTER V.

MASSACHUSETTS AND CONNECTICUT.



WHEN the North Virginia Company was renewed under the name of the Plymouth Company, many important men belonged to it, and some of the members, such as Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason, took a great interest in its prosperity. Yet it was far inferior in its results to the Virginia Company. No successful settlements were made at the expense of the company, nor does it seem to have done much in the way of trade. The chief thing done was to sell or let large tracts of land to private persons, many of them members of the company, which they might occupy if they chose. This hindered rather than furthered colonization. For the leading men of the company knew so little of the country that they often carelessly disposed of the same tract of land twice over, and this gave rise to much confusion in later times. Thus for some years after the settlement of Plymouth very little else was done in that quarter. We have already seen what became of two settlements, those under Weston and Wollaston. Another attempt was made in 1623. In that year, Robert Gorges, a son of Sir Ferdinando, was sent out to plant a colony at Wessagusset, where Weston had already failed. But though he went out with a commission from the company as Governor-General of New England, he did nothing worth speaking of, and only left a few scattered settlers. Some of the members of the company too had regular establishments for fishing and trading in furs, managed by hired servants, and a good many vessels fished along the Massachusetts bay. Besides this, a few stray emigrants seem to have settled themselves alone, but not to have formed any villages. Some of these traders and fishermen did much harm by selling guns to the natives, and this, together with the Virginia massacre, led the king to publish a proclamation forbidding any one to sell arms or ammunition to the savages in America. Before long the success of the Plymouth colonists led others to follow in their footsteps. About 1627 some of the leaders among the Puritan party, men of much greater wealth and education than the founders of Plymouth, bethought them of forming a second Puritan colony in America. Already some of these men had a fishing station on the coast about sixty miles from Plymouth, which was to serve as a sort of foundation for their colony. In 1628 they got a tract of land, about sixty miles along

the oast, granted them by the Plymouth Company, and sent out a party of sixty men to occupy it. So far the founders of the settlement were only a private trading company; but in the spring of 1629 they took an important step—they increased their number, and obtained a charter from the king making them into a corporation, called the Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England. This company had nothing to do with the Plymouth Company, beyond having bought a tract of land from it. In its character and objects it was not unlike the Virginia Company. Its affairs were managed by a Governor, a Deputy-Governor, and eighteen Assistants. All these officers were elected by the whole company once a year. The whole body of members had the power of making laws for the settlers in their territory so long as these did not interfere with the laws of England. The company immediately appointed a Council of thirteen to manage their affairs in the colony, and sent out six ships with three hundred men and eighty women. Next year a very important change was made. The charter said nothing as to the place at which the meetings of the company were to be held. Accordingly the members resolved to carry the charter over to America, and to hold their meetings there. In this way they would be less under the eye of the English government, and better able to make such religious and political changes as might please them. If the company had been really like the Virginia Company, a trading corporation, this change would have been inconvenient. But from the outset the formation of a Puritan colony was looked on as their chief object. Rules were made about the joint trade of the company, but these soon passed out of sight. The company seems never to have divided any profits in money, and the only return which the subscribers received for the money they had put in was the land allotted to them in America. The real object of the company was something very different from trade. It was to found a separate state, independent of England, and differing from it in many leading points. This attempt was even more remarkable than the undertakings of the Virginia and Plymouth colonists. The Virginia Company made their settlement with the intention that it should be closely connected with England, and though it became in many ways independent, yet it did so gradually, and rather by chance than of set purpose. Plymouth was indeed quite as independent as Massachusetts. But then, Plymouth was in every way a much less important place. The



PILGRIM COSTUMES.

men who founded it were poor and unlearned, and could be hardly said to have taken up the enterprise of their own free will, but were rather forced into it by the ill-treatment they met with in England. The founders of Massachusetts were in a very different position. We have seen that among those who wished to carry the Protestant Reformation further than it had yet gone there were different parties. There were those who condemned the Church of England altogether, and wished instead to have Independent, or, as they may be called, Congregational churches. The founders of Plymouth belonged to this party. The party to which the founders of Massachusetts belonged also wished to remove many usages which seemed to them too much like those of the Roman Catholic Church. But they sought to do so, not by leaving the English Church and setting up a new system, but by altering the practices of the Church itself. Most of those Puritans who were in Parliament and took an active part in public affairs were of this latter party. At this particular time those men were just as much opposed to the system of political government in England as to the practices of the Church; for the king was beginning to set Parliament at naught, and to govern by his own will. He levied taxes without the consent of the House of Commons, and imprisoned those who would not pay: in short, he was entering upon that system of government which led to the Great Rebellion. In founding the colony of Massachusetts, the Puritans were securing a refuge where they might be safe from this arbitrary government, and might manage things according to their own political principles. This, coupled with the greater wealth and higher birth of the first colonists, made the settlement of Massachusetts a much more important event than that of Plymouth; for the founders of Massachusetts were for the most part rich men, some country squires and some merchants, and several were kinsfolk to the greatest men of the day. Many of those who furthered it, though not of those who actually went out, were members of Parliament, who afterwards took a leading part in English affairs; and some of the actual settlers seem to have been in nowise inferior to them in wisdom and energy, and doubtless would have made great names for themselves if they had stayed in England. So that, by looking at the colony of Massachusetts, we can see what sort of a commonwealth was constructed by the best men of the Puritan party, and, to some extent, what they would have made the government of England if they could have had their way unchecked. The first governor, John Winthrop, was a country gentleman of a good estate in Suffolk, forty-two years of age. Eaton, one of the assistants, had been the English minister at the court of Denmark. To such as these it must have been no small sacrifice to leave England and their houses and estates, and to settle in a wilderness. In this Massachusetts differed from Virginia: for though Lord Delaware and Gates and Dale had gone out to the colony, yet

they only went for a while to set things in order, with no intention of staying; but in Massachusetts men of great ability and distinction went out at the very first as regular settlers. This we may be sure they would never have done without the hope of enjoying such political and religious freedom as was not to be had in England.

In the summer of 1630 Winthrop went out with a thousand emigrants. Like the earlier settlers in Virginia and Plymouth, they suffered grievous hardships. In the winter before nearly eighty of the colonists had died, and of



NEW ENGLAND SCENERY.

course, as their numbers increased, food was scarcer and their plight became worse. Moreover, the cold weather came on before they had time to settle and build houses, and many died. By ill luck it was a time of dearth in England, and very little corn was sent over, and that at great prices. One result of this was that the settlers, in their attempts to find food, spread abroad, and instead of all forming one town, as was originally intended, they formed eight small settlements.

One of the most interesting and remarkable things in the early history of Massachusetts is the series of changes in its system of government. After a few years it had, like Virginia and Plymouth, a government which was a sort of miniature of the English system, and consisted of a Governor, a Council of Assistants, and a body of Representatives, two from each settlement. In the process by which this came about Massachusetts resembled, not Virginia, but Plymouth. The arrangement was not made once for all,

but grew gradually by various changes which were made as they became necessary. Originally all important matters were managed by the whole body of the freemen at their meetings four times in the year. The number of freemen, however, increased so fast that the system became inconvenient, and in October, 1630, the right of making laws and of electing the Governor and Deputy-Governor was given over to the Assistants. Very soon it was found difficult to get together seven Assistants, which was the number required to form a meeting. Accordingly the Assistants enacted that if less than nine of them should be in the colony, the majority should be enough to form a meeting. This change placed the authority in the hands of a very small body.

In May, 1631, the manner of electing Assistants was altered; the Assistants, instead of being elected afresh every year, remained in office until they were specially removed by a vote of the freemen. After these two measures, the management of affairs was likely to fall into the hands of a very small body of men, who could not easily be deprived of their office. In the spring of 1631 the inhabitants of Watertown, one of the eight settlements, refused to pay a tax levied by the Assistants. When the General Court of all the freemen met in May, it was decided that two men should be sent from each settlement to decide the question of taxation. Two points should be noticed: 1. The principle for which the men of Watertown had contended, that they should not be taxed without their own consent, was admitted; 2. The freemen, instead of acting directly in the matter, found it more convenient to send deputies to speak for them. For the present these deputies had no power of law making, but only advised the Assistants about taxation. At the same time the freemen claimed and were allowed the right of electing the Governor and Assistants each year. Two years later a very important change was made. The freemen, finding that to attend the meetings was too great an interruption to their business, reserved to themselves only the power of electing the Governor and Deputy-Governor, and made over all their other powers to their deputies. These Deputies, together with the Governor and Assistants, formed the General Court. In the year 1634 the election of Governor was by ballot, and, for the first time, Winthrop was not elected. Soon after, when seven men were appointed to settle the division of town lands, Winthrop and several of the chief men were left out, and poorer men chosen, from an idea that otherwise the lower class of settlers would not get their fair share. In this same year a proposal was made which, if carried, would have completely changed the character of the colony. Certain Puritans of the upper classes, including Lord Brook and Lord Say and Sele, who were both members of the Plymouth Company and took a great interest in colonization, proposed to come over. They required, however, that two orders should be established in the colony, gentlemen and

freeholders. The rank of the first was to be hereditary, and the governor was always to be chosen from it. The second order, the freeholders, was to consist of those who had a certain amount of property, while all below that were to be shut out from all political power. Such a system would have robbed many of the freemen of the very liberty in hopes of which they came over. If the proposal had been made earlier, before the freemen had strengthened themselves by naming representatives, it might have been entertained; but as it was, it met with no favor. Two years later an attempt was made to establish a Permanent Council. Its members were to hold office for life, and could only be removed for some serious cause. Some councillors were elected, but nothing further was ever done, and the scheme fell to the ground.

Up to 1644 the Deputies sat together with the Assistants; but in that year they sat apart, like the English House of Commons. The manner in which this came about is a good illustration of the simple life of the colony, and shows how the government had to manage all matters, great and small, and how the two were in a great measure mixed up. A lawsuit about a stolen pig came before the General Court. The parties to the suit were a poor widow and one Captain Keayne, a rich man, who was thought hard to the poor, and so was unpopular. Seven Assistants and eight Deputies were on Keayne's side; two Assistants and fifteen Deputies were against him. The Assistants were looked on as the champions of the rich; the Deputies, of the poor: and thus a bitter feeling sprang up. A long dispute followed, and in the end the power of the Deputies was increased by their being allowed to sit as a separate body. After that the constitution of Massachusetts underwent no important change for forty years.

All this while, though Massachusetts was in so many ways independent, and had so little connection with the home government, yet it preferred to be governed by the laws of England; that is to say, the law of England was the only law which held good in Massachusetts, except when anything different was specially enacted by the Court. But in 1636, the people, who, as we have seen, were somewhat jealous of the leading men, demanded a code of laws, feeling that they would be more secure if they were governed by fixed statutes than by enactments made from time to time by the Court. On the other hand, Winthrop and some of the principal men felt that the Government in England might resent the enactment of a regular code of laws, as if the settlers thereby claimed to be independent of the mother country. The people, however, were determined to have a code, and at length got their way. A committee was appointed to draw one up, and, though there was much delay, in 1641 a complete set of laws was enacted under the name of the Body of Liberties. This code was modeled in many of its parts, not on the English law, but on that of Moses. In one respect it followed the prin-

ciples of the English law in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. All men who appeared to be living in a state of idleness were compelled to give an account of themselves to the government, and all heads of families were bound to see that their children were properly employed.

Originally the Massachusetts settlers differed from those of Plymouth in their position towards the Church. They were only reformers, not dissenters; but though they accepted the government of the Church while they were in England, they had no such liking for it that they cared to continue their connection with it when it was even easier and simpler to establish a new system. Immediately upon their first landing in 1628 they adopted a system of Independent churches, like that of Plymouth. In 1631 a law was passed that no man should be a freeman of the colony, that is to say, should have any share in the government or in the election of officers, unless he belonged to a church. The effect of this was to establish a connection between



EARLY MEETING-HOUSE.

the churches and the civil government. Each church had the power of admitting fresh members to itself; that is to say, of making fresh citizens. Such a power was too important to be exercised without any control on the part of the state; moreover, the New England Puritans believed, like most men in that age, that it was their duty to root out every form of belief which they thought false, and that, if needs were, by force. The result of this was, that those who held unpopular opinions in Massachusetts were treated in much the same

way as the Puritans themselves were in England. Endicott, a harsh and austere man, who was sent out in charge of the first party in 1628, was empowered to expel any one from the colony whom he thought an unsuitable inhabitant. He accordingly drove out two brothers, John and Samuel Brown, a lawyer and a merchant, who wished to celebrate worship according to the forms of the Church of England. Three years later, one Lynn was whipped and banished for writing home letters attacking the system of church-government.

In 1634 a more serious contest arose. In that year, Roger Williams, an able young Welshman, trained at Oxford, and of great integrity and gentleness, was minister at Salem, a town in Massachusetts. There he taught certain doctrines, both in religion and politics, which were thought dangerous to the state. He was brought before the Court, and after much discussion they decided to send him back to England. Before this sentence could be carried out, he escaped. Soon afterwards he established a small settlement to the south of Massachusetts. In justice, it must be said that the chief men in Massachusetts do not seem to have borne any ill-will against Williams afterwards. Indeed, while he was still on his trial, Winthrop,

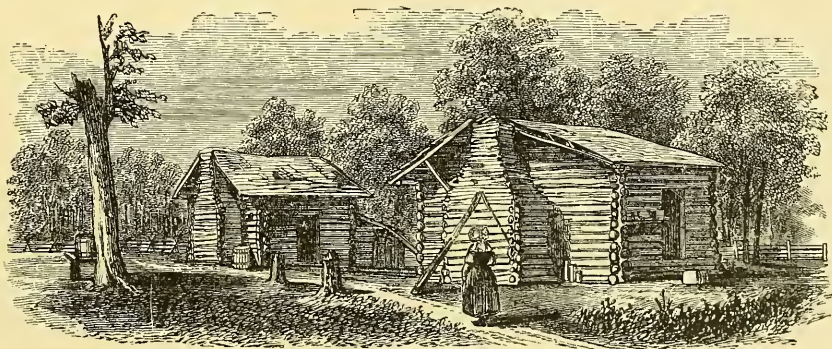
hearing that he was in need, sent him money. Two years later worse troubles arose. A certain Mrs. Hutchinson, an active and clever woman, took to giving religious lectures at Boston. She soon became the leader of a sect in many points opposed to the teaching of the regular ministers. In this she was supported by Wheelwright, the minister of Boston, and by nearly the whole of his church. The matter was brought before the General Court, and Greensmith, one of Mrs. Hutchinson's chief supporters, was fined forty pounds. The church of Boston took up his cause, and sent a petition to the Court on his behalf. For this they were punished in a curious way. Hitherto Boston had been considered the chief town in the colony. Winthrop's house was there, and the General Court held its meetings there. It was now resolved that the Court should meet at Newtown, the place next in importance. Soon after this the yearly election of Governor and Assistants came on, and it almost seemed as if a civil war was at hand. Henry Vane, who had been Governor for the past year, was a young man of good family and education, and afterwards took a leading part among the statesmen of the English Commonwealth. He was, however, but a new comer in Massachusetts, and most likely the old settlers, Winthrop and his friends, looked on his youth and inexperience with some suspicion. Though Vane was not exactly one of Mrs. Hutchinson's party, he regarded her with more favor than most of the chief men did, and seems to have been opposed to the proceedings against her. In such a state of things the election was sure to be the signal for a great outbreak of angry feeling. Winthrop was elected Governor, and Vane and his chief supporters were not even chosen to be Assistants. After this a tumult arose and fierce speeches were made, and some even came to blows. The men of Boston, who had been wont to send an escort with the Governor on public occasions, now refused it. Before the end of the year a conference of all the churches was held to settle some way of dealing with these troubles. Vane, whose influence might have been a help to those accused, had gone back to England. At the conference, Wheelwright was put on his trial for a sermon which he had preached, and for his opinions and practice generally. Mrs. Hutchinson was charged with imputing false teaching to all the ministers in the country except those of Boston. Several others of her chief supporters were accused of having made a heretical and scandalous statement in their petition on behalf of Greensmith. For this offence Mrs. Hutchinson and Wheelwright were banished; the rest had to acknowledge their guilt and to yield up their arms, and were deprived of any office that they held. With this the troubles ended, and the churches of Massachusetts for a while enjoyed peace. All traces of the storm soon passed away. Wheelwright after a time confessed himself in error, and was allowed to return. Many of the others who had been punished, afterwards held offices,

and served as loyal citizens in the wars against the Indians. It gives one a good idea of the small size of Massachusetts, and from what a little seed a great nation has grown, when one sees the whole state thrown into agitation, and almost civil war, by an affair which in England would not have occupied the attention of a single county, or even a large town, and of which ninety-nine persons out of a hundred might never have heard. It shows one too how popular the government was in spite of all its severity, and how loyal the citizens were, when such an affair could pass over and leave no ill effects behind, especially as only the leaders were banished, and many remained who might have served as the seed for a new faction.

Meanwhile, the colony was exposed to dangers from without as well as from within. Certain persons, Gardiner, Morton, and Ratcliffe, had been expelled from Massachusetts, the first two for disorderly conduct, the last for speaking ill of the government. They had complained to the English government of their ill-treatment. Such complaints were readily received. Archbishop Laud and his party must from the first have looked on the colony with dislike and distrust. The harshness with which the Browns had been treated would increase this feeling. Ratcliffe too seems to have been dealt with severely; and though Gardiner and Morton were probably disorderly and vicious men, they could easily make up a fair-sounding story against the colonists. It is scarcely likely that the king, when he granted the charter, ever imagined what sort of fruit it would bear. The Privy Council at once took measures to control the independent spirit of Massachusetts. In February, 1634, they issued an order setting forth that many disaffected persons were crossing over to New England, and that, as evil consequences would result from this, all ships should for a while be stopped from sailing thither. At the same time they demanded that the Massachusetts charter should be laid before them. Two months later the king issued a commission to Laud and ten others, empowering them to punish ecclesiastical offences in the colonies, to remove governors, to appoint judges and magistrates, to establish courts, and to revoke all charters and patents that might have been unfairly obtained. A little later, Sir Ferdinando Gorges laid before the Privy Council a scheme for dividing New England into a number of provinces, each under a Lieutenant-Governor, with one Governor over the whole, all to be appointed by the Crown. Such proceedings naturally alarmed the colonists. Even at this early time they showed that, if needful, they were prepared to resist any attack on their liberties. They fortified three of their chief towns, Boston, Charlestown, and Dorchester, and made arrangements for the collection and safe keeping of arms. A commission was appointed to manage all military affairs, with power, if war broke out, to imprison, or even put to death, any persons that refused to obey them. At the same time it was enacted that the freemen should no

longer take the oath of allegiance to the king, but instead, should swear to be faithful and true to the commonwealth of Massachusetts.

In 1635 the Plymouth Company came to an end. Its existence had done no good, either to members of the company or to others, and accordingly they resolved to surrender their patent to the king. The only lasting effect of the company was to create confusion by the reckless way in which it had granted the same lands over and over again to different occupants. In the autumn of 1635 vigorous measures were taken by the English government against Massachusetts. A writ of *Quo warranto*, like that which had overthrown the Virginia Company, was issued, and the Massachusetts charter was declared null and void. Two events which could have been in no way reckoned on made the attack vain. The ship in which Gorges was coming out to support the interests of the English government fell to pieces almost as soon as launched. About the same time Mason, a leading member of the Plymouth Company, a friend of Gorges, and a most energetic opponent of Massachusetts, died. For three years no further attempt was made to put the judgment against the charter in force. But in 1638 some more disaffected people who had been punished by the Massachusetts government for disorderly and seditious conduct, came to England with complaints, and stirred up the home government against the colony. A strict order was sent out demanding the charter. The colony sent back, not the charter, but a protest against the injustice of taking it from them. It seemed as if they would have either to keep it by force or to yield. But the English government soon had more serious matters to attend to at home. By 1639 the Scotch were in arms against Charles I. The civil war took off all attention from the colonies, and when peace was restored, the Puritans had the upper hand, and the charter of Massachusetts was safe.



SETTLERS' FIRST HOME.

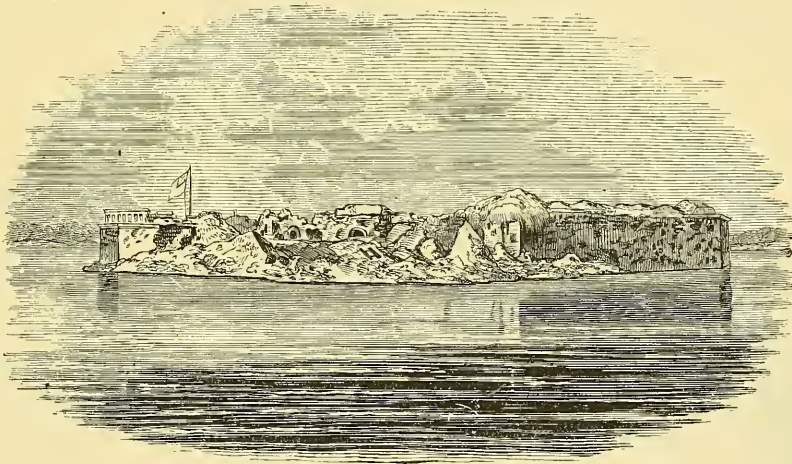
Of all the American colonies, Massachusetts was the first, and for a long while the only one, which became itself the parent of other independent states. About 1634 the people in three of the townships of Massachusetts

—Newtown, Watertown, and Dorchester—being pressed by lack of pasture for their cattle, formed a scheme for settling the lands which lay to the west beyond the boundary of Plymouth. This was a fertile land, watered by a broad river, the Connecticut. One reason for the movement was the fear that the Dutch, who were already settled on the river Hudson, might step in and occupy this land. It was thought too that some of the leading men at Newtown wished for more influence and independence than they enjoyed there. The measure was at first much opposed in the General Court. It was thought that it would weaken the settlement, and take off some of their most valued ministers. Moreover, the Dutch had already set up a fort on the river, and might resent any trespass there. The Indians also in that quarter were many and fierce. The home government too might disapprove of the settlers moving into lands to which they had no legal claim. Among those who were most anxious for the change were the people of Watertown. They, as we have seen, had been the first to resist the claim of the Governors and Assistants to impose taxes, and it is possible that both sides were influenced by the memory of that quarrel. Certain it is, at least, that the Assistants were opposed to the emigration, and the Deputies in favor of it. The latter view prevailed, and in 1635, with the leave of the Court, a settlement was formed. The emigrants set out too late in the year, and they suffered great hardships. The next year about a hundred emigrants with a hundred and sixty cattle set forth. By 1637 the new settlement contained three towns and eight hundred inhabitants.

The new colony was called Connecticut. At first the government was unsettled. It was held that the inhabitants were still subject to the state of Massachusetts; yet as early as 1636 they had a Court of their own, consisting of two deputies from each town, who managed all the public business of the settlement. This system went on for three years, but it was clear that they could not continue dependent on the government of a state separated from them by more than a hundred and thirty miles of wilderness. Accordingly in 1639 the freemen of Connecticut all met together and formed a Constitution very like that of Massachusetts. The whole body of freemen were to elect a Governor and six Magistrates, who were to administer justice and manage public affairs. Each town was to elect two Deputies, and those, together with the Governor and Assistants, were to form the supreme government. The chief points of difference between this Constitution and that of Massachusetts were two: 1. The freemen of each town only needed to be admitted by the other freemen of that town, and were not obliged to be church members: 2. No man could be governor for two years together. Massachusetts does not seem to have made any attempt to keep its hold over Connecticut, but allowed its inhabitants to set up a perfectly independent government. For the present, Connecticut had no charter or patent from

the Crown, and the constitution, like that of Plymouth, rested only on the agreement of the citizens.

While this state was being formed, an attempt was also made by a party in England to colonize the same country. In the autumn of 1635, just when the first migration was being made from Massachusetts, John Winthrop, the son of the Massachusetts governor, came out with a commission from Lord Brook, Lord Say and Sele, and others, to be the governor of a tract of land on the river Connecticut. According to their orders, he established a fort at the mouth of the river, driving out a ship that had been sent by the Dutch to lay claim to the place. This settlement, for a while, had no connection with the towns founded from Massachusetts. But in 1644, Fenwick, the governor of the fort, made it over to the state of Connecticut, in return for certain duties to be levied on ships sailing past.



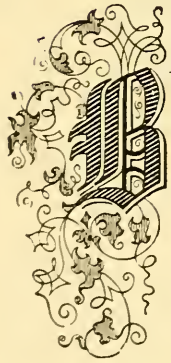
A RUDE FORT.

Soon after the settlement of Connecticut, New England was engaged in its first Indian war. The country near the river Connecticut was inhabited by the Pequods, a fierce and warlike tribe, numbering nearly a thousand warriors. For three or four years there were various paltry quarrels between the Pequods and the English, and some on each side were killed. The Pequods tried to strengthen themselves by an alliance with a neighboring tribe, the Narragansetts. Roger Williams, who had been banished from Massachusetts, now showed a noble spirit of forgiveness. Being able to speak the Indian language, he went at the risk of his own life to the Narragansetts chiefs, and persuaded them to have no dealings with the Pequods. They were the more easily persuaded to this as the Pequods had formerly been their enemies. Soon after, the Narragansetts sent an embassy to Boston, and made a firm alliance with England. The Mohegans, the only other

powerful tribe of Indians in that country, were also friendly to the colonists. Thus the Pequods were left to stand alone. If it had been otherwise, and if the Indian tribes had united, it is possible that the settlers might have been exterminated. In 1637 the colonists considered that they had good cause for beginning the war, and a force from Massachusetts and Connecticut marched against the Indians. They attacked the chief fort, where the Pequods had placed their women and children. The Indians for a while resisted, till the settlers set the fort on fire. The light wood and wicker-work was at once in a blaze. All within, men, women, and children, to the number of six hundred, perished. Of the besiegers only two fell. The colonists then pushed on into the Pequot country, desolating and destroying everywhere, till nearly the whole tribe was exterminated. About two hundred survived, some of whom were kept as slaves by the settlers, while the rest lived scattered among the other Indian tribes. Their chief, Sasacus, fled to the Mohawks, by whom he was killed, and the nation of Pequods ceased to exist.

CHAPTER VI.

THE SMALLER NEW ENGLAND COLONIES.



ESIDES the three more important Puritan colonies, there were other small settlements in the same neighborhood. All of these joined themselves sooner or later to the larger colonies. But some remained separate long enough to make it necessary that we should know something of their history. The most important of these was New Haven. This was founded by a small body of men from London and Massachusetts, some of them of good birth and education. They wished to establish a state which should in all its arrangements make the Bible its rule of life. For this object, they quitted Massachusetts in 1638, and settled themselves at a place called Quinipiac on the coast, thirty miles to the west of the river Connecticut. Soon after, they changed the name to New Haven. For a year they lived without any fixed constitution, thinking it would be better to get some experience before they took the decisive step of forming a government. At the end of that time they proceeded to settle a system of government. As in Massachusetts, none but church members were to be freemen. They appointed twelve men, who were in their turn to choose seven who should draw up a constitution. The next year the freemen elected a Gov-



MOUNT IDA
In the Hudson

Selmar Hess, Publisher, New York.

ernor and four Deputies, and it was resolved that the whole body of freemen should meet once a year to transact public business. By 1641 the state had increased to three townships. Two small independent settlements had sprung up near, called Guilford and Milford. These were like New Haven in their general principles and system of government. In 1643 they voluntarily joined themselves to New Haven. It now became necessary to introduce the system of representatives. Accordingly a government was formed very like that of Massachusetts. There was a Governor, a Deputy-Governor, and a body of Assistants elected by all the freemen, and a body of Representatives, two from each town. These were to meet once a year. Important lawsuits were to be tried by the Assistants, small cases by magistrates elected by the freemen in each town. The whole number of householders in the five towns amounted to a hundred and twenty-two. The most noticeable point about New Haven was the wealth of its inhabitants, which was greater than in any of the neighboring states. The town of New Haven was the handsomest and best built in New England, and some of the inhabitants displeased the people of Massachusetts by the size and costliness of their houses.

When Roger Williams was driven out of Massachusetts, he established himself with a small band of followers at a place which they called Providence, at the head of Narragansett Bay. In 1640 we find the first record of any regular government among them. The colony then contained thirty-nine members. All their affairs were managed by five men, called Arbitrators. There does not seem to have been any fixed code of laws, nor any regular rules for the choice of these Arbitrators. Another settlement much like this sprang up in an island near Providence, called by its occupants Rhode Island. This was founded by some of Mrs. Hutchinson's followers when they were banished from Massachusetts. Here, too, there was at first no fixed code of laws. Affairs were managed by a Judge and three Assistants chosen by the whole people. In 1639 the settlement broke up into two independent bodies, Newport and Portsmouth, but they were joined together again in 1640. The whole settlement by that time contained about fifty inhabitants, and a more regular system of government was introduced. Public affairs were to be managed by a Governor, a Deputy-Governor, and four Assistants. The Governor and two Assistants were to be chosen from one of the towns, the Deputy-Governor and the other Assistants from the other. Neither here nor in Rhode Island was it necessary that freemen should be church members. In 1644 Roger Williams returned to England and got from the Commissioners for Plantations a patent incorporating Providence, Portsmouth, and Newport into one colony, with full power to make their own laws and constitution. Another town called Warwick was at once added to these. A President and four Assistants, one from each town, were

chosen. In 1647 a very peculiar system of making laws was introduced. Six Deputies were chosen by each township; these formed the General Court. Either this Court, or any of the towns at a public meeting of the townsmen, might propose a law; this proposal was then sent round to the four towns, and all the freemen might vote for or against it. The votes were then collected, and, if the law was confirmed by a majority, it was passed: if not, it fell to the ground. Thus, no doubt, they hoped to give every man a direct share in making the laws, without putting all the inhab-



Roger Williams

itants to the trouble of attending a general meeting. In the same year a code of laws was drawn up. Unlike the codes of the other New England states, this resembled the English law, and was evidently drawn up by some one familiar with that system. It is also noteworthy that the General Court sent persons accused of treason to England for trial. This was almost the only instance in which any of the New England colonies invited the mother country to interfere with its internal affairs. The next year disputes broke out. Coddington, the head of one party, went over to England, and returned with a patent constituting Newport and Portsmouth a separate state. This arrangement was strongly ob-

jected to by the other towns, and also by many of the inhabitants of Newport and Portsmouth. They believed that Coddington wished to join them to Massachusetts, and they disliked that scheme. Many of them were Baptists, and severe laws had lately been passed against that sect in Massachusetts, and some of them who had gone thither from Rhode Island had been flogged by order of the magistrates. The feud between Coddington and his opponents lasted three years, and each refused to acknowledge the authority of the other party as lawful. At last, in 1654, they were reconciled by Roger Williams. By his persuasion the four townships reunited under the patent of 1644. Williams himself was elected President. The management of affairs was handed over to the General Court of six deputies from each town, and the old code of laws was declared to be in force.

In 1638 Gorges obtained from the king a new charter, making him a proprietor of the province of Maine in New England. All the colonies that we have as yet considered were formed, either like Virginia and Massachu-

setts, by regular companies, or else like Plymouth and Connecticut, by bodies of men bound together by their own voluntary agreement for this purpose. There was, however, another class of colonies, dependent on a single proprietor or a small number of proprietors. In these cases, the king by a charter gave certain rights and powers to the proprietor, and he in his turn gave certain rights to the inhabitants. It will be better to consider this subject more fully when we come to the important proprietary colonies of Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Carolina. The grant to Gorges included all the land between the Piscataqua and Kennebec rivers, as far as a hundred and twenty miles from the sea. His charter gave him almost kingly power over this territory. With the consent of the freeholders he could enact laws. By his own authority he could establish law courts, levy taxes, raise troops, and make war. The colony contained two settlements, York and Saco, and about three hundred citizens. Nevertheless Gorges, who seems to have had more activity than wisdom, drew up a most elaborate constitution, with enough of officials for the government of a great empire. The settlement of York alone was to be governed by a Mayor, twelve Aldermen, and twenty-four Common Councillors. Gorges never visited his colony, and before long the settlers threw aside this cumbrous government, and established a simpler system for themselves. Little is known of the character and position of the earlier settlers in Maine. But as Gorges was no friend to the Puritans, and a strong partisan of the king, we may be almost sure that his settlers differed both in religion and politics from their neighbors in Massachusetts and Plymouth.

Several scattered settlements had been formed to the north of Massachusetts, in the neighborhood of the Piscataqua. Some of these were founded by settlers under the Plymouth Company, others by Mrs. Hutchinson's partisans when driven from Massachusetts. About 1641, some of these settlements of their own choice joined Massachusetts, and by 1643 one only remained independent. As many of these settlers were not Puritans, the Massachusetts government did not enforce the rule which held good in other towns, that all freemen must be church members. The one settlement which remained independent was called Lygonia. It was founded by some private settlers under a grant from the Plymouth Company. The only point to be noticed in its early history is, that part of the territory of Lygonia had already been granted to Gorges. Disputes accordingly arose with Maine. In these disputes the inhabitants of Lygonia appealed to Massachusetts. That colony declined to do anything in the matter, but Maine was not strong enough to enforce its claim. In 1646 the dispute was brought before the Commissioners for Plantations, who decided in favor of Lygonia. In one way these small settlements had an important effect; they prevented New England from being exclusively and entirely Puritan.

CHAPTER VII.

THE NEW ENGLAND CONFEDERATION.



SO far we have considered the various English colonies to the east of the Hudson as separate provinces; we may now treat them as divisions of a single country, applying to all of them together the name of New England. The whole territory of New England extended about two hundred and fifty miles along the coast. Excepting the towns on the Connecticut, there were no settlements more than eight or ten miles from the sea. The whole English population amounted to about twenty-six thousand, of whom fifteen thousand belonged to Massachusetts. The laws, customs, and manners of life throughout all the colonies were much alike; all, except the insignificant colonies on and near the Piscataqua, were composed mainly of Puritans. In none were there any very rich or very poor, or any class of wealthy landed gentry. Everywhere there were laws providing for the teaching of children. Grown-up citizens too were subject to strict public discipline. Expense in dress and habits likely to lead to disorder, such as card-playing and drinking healths, were forbidden. As the soil and climate of all the colonies was much alike, so was their industry and commerce. The chief exports were corn, salt, fish, and timber. In Massachusetts shipbuilding was a thriving business, while Plymouth depended more on trade with the Indians in fur and skins, and from an early time had trading-houses up several of the rivers. The most important point of likeness, however, which ran through all the states, was their system of townships and churches. Each town was a society by itself, managing the chief part of its own affairs by public meetings of the whole body of townsmen, and by officers elected at these meetings. The police, the public roads, and the relief of the poor were all under the control of the separate townships, although, if they neglected their duties, they could be admonished, and even fined, by the colonial government. Moreover, when the colony levied a tax, it only declared that each town must pay a certain amount, and left the townsmen to settle how the payment should be divided among individuals. At the same time each town had a church of its own, and the congregation was for the most part identical with the township. Under this system every freeman gained a certain amount of practical training in public affairs.

With this likeness of habits and institutions running through all the

colonies, it was but natural that they should form some sort of political union. Till 1638 the two original colonies, Plymouth and Massachusetts, had little to do with one another, nor was that little always friendly. In 1634 one Hocking, with a vessel belonging to Lord Say and Sele, went to trade up the Kennebec. The men of Plymouth claimed the exclusive right of trading there, and resisted. A quarrel followed, in which Hocking shot one of his opponents and was himself killed. The matter was taken up by the Court of Massachusetts. As neither Hocking nor the ship came from Massachusetts, this was a sort of claim to deal with all questions which affected the peace of New England. After some discussion it was decided



LEYDEN STREET, PLYMOUTH, IN 1874.

that Hocking had only himself to blame. This does not seem to have caused any ill-feeling between the states, as immediately afterwards Plymouth proposed to Massachusetts to establish a joint trading-house on the Connecticut. There were also disputes about boundaries, but these were settled in a friendly way.

The first definite proposal for a union between the colonies was made in 1638; the reasons for it were plain enough. There was the danger always to be feared from the Indians. There was also the possibility of en-

encroachments by the English government. If the king conquered the parliament, New England was almost sure to be one of his first victims. Danger also threatened from two other quarters. The French had by this time established themselves in Canada and in the country now called Nova Scotia, then Acadia. The city of Quebec had been founded in 1608, and, under the energetic government of Cardinal Richelieu, the great French minister, the colony had grown and prospered. Indeed, it is likely that, if the settlement of Massachusetts had been delayed for a few years, the whole territory north of the Hudson would have been seized by the French. The English and French settlers soon fell out. In 1613 Argall, who afterwards so misconducted himself as Governor of Virginia, had, without provocation, attacked and destroyed two of the French settlements. In 1629, when England and France were at war, a small English fleet, under a brave sea-captain, David Kirk, captured Quebec, and destroyed or took all the French settlements on the American coast. But before the capture was made peace had been declared, on the condition that everything taken after April 24, 1629, should be given back. Accordingly the captured territory was restored to France. In 1631, though England and France were at peace, the New Englanders heard that the French colonists were about to attack them, and made ready to resist. In the next year a French ship fell on a trading station belonging to Plymouth, and carried off goods worth five hundred pounds.

Another European settlement threatened New England from the opposite side. In 1609 Henry Hudson, one of the greatest of English seamen, had, in the service of the Dutch, explored the coast to the south-west of Massachusetts Bay and sailed up the river which now bears his name. The Dutch, who had just cast off the rule of Spain, were then one of the most enterprising nations in Europe. They soon occupied the country between Delaware Bay and the Connecticut, and gave it the name of New Netherlands. In 1627 they sent a friendly embassy to Plymouth. But as soon as New England began to extend itself towards the Connecticut the Dutch thought that their territory was being encroached on, and disputes arose. Twice the Dutch sent vessels to drive the English away from the Connecticut, but each time without success. Besides this, small disputes arose ever and again between the Dutch and the English on the borders.

As was natural, Connecticut, being one of the weakest colonies and nearest to the Dutch, was most anxious for some sort of league among the New England colonies. In September, 1642, proposals from Connecticut were laid before the court of Massachusetts. In the next year a union of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, was formed. Maine, Rhode Island, and Providence applied for admission, but were refused; the first because its political system was different from that of the

united colonies, the others on the ground of their disorderly condition. The form of the union was a Confederation. Each colony, that is to say, was to preserve its full independence in all internal matters, while at the same time there was to be a supreme government over all the colonies, with full control over their dealings with foreign states. Such a union is, looked at from within, a group of separate states; looked at from without, it is a single state. The government was entrusted to eight Federal Commissioners, two from each colony. The great defect of the Confederation was the superiority of Massachusetts to the other colonies. Its population was about fifteen thousand, that of the three smaller states scarcely three thousand each. In consideration of this it was agreed that if the Confederation went to war, Massachusetts was to send a hundred men for every forty-five from each of the other colonies. Besides, as the taxes levied for the defence of the Confederacy were to be proportioned to the population of each colony, Massachusetts had in two ways to bear the heaviest share of the common burden. At the same time the constitution only gave an equal share in the management of affairs to each colony. The result of this was that Massachusetts repeatedly tried to exercise more power than the articles of the union gave her, and that the harmony, and even the existence, of the Confederation was thereby endangered.

As might have been expected, New England was a gainer by the victory of the parliament over the king. In 1642 the House of Commons passed a resolution freeing New England from the import and export duties levied on the other colonies. Two years later the Court of Massachusetts made a law that any one who should try to raise a party there for the king should be treated as an offender against the state. When the colonial commissioners appointed by parliament seized a Royalist vessel in Boston harbor, the question arose whether this act should be allowed. After some discussion, the Court decided not to resist. Their chief ground was that it would be foolish to quarrel with parliament, which was their best friend. At the same time, they made an important admission. It might be said, and it was said at a later time, that parliament had no authority over the colonies, because they had no representatives in the House of Commons. As a matter of form, all the land in America was reckoned, when it was granted by the king, to be in the manor of East Greenwich. Accordingly the Court of Massachusetts said that, as the colonists held their land in that manor, the parliamentary representatives of the borough or county which included that place, represented them also. In 1651 parliament demanded that Massachusetts should give up its charter and take another from them. For a year no notice was taken of this. At last the General Court of Massachusetts sent back a somewhat vague answer, setting forth all that the settlers had done and suffered in founding a colony, and expressing a hope that no change

would be made in its government. About this time, the General Court took a very independent step. It established a mint, and coined money. This practice lasted for thirty years. Cromwell himself, throughout his whole career as Protector, was a fast friend to New England. Twice he proposed to the settlers to change their abode. After his desolation of Ireland he wished to move them in there, and at a somewhat later time he proposed that they should emigrate to Jamaica, which England had just taken from Spain. The colonists declined both these offers.

As had happened with Morton and Ratcliffe, the severity of Massachusetts towards offenders raised up enemies against her in England. About 1636 there came into New England one Gorton, a weak and hot-headed man, who held religious opinions disapproved of by the churches of Massachusetts. After getting into trouble in nearly every state in New England, at last, in 1641, he settled near Providence on land that he had bought from Miantonomo, chief of the Narragansetts. Near this was a small independent settlement called Pawtuxet, founded by some of Roger Williams's followers. These men complained of Gorton as a troublesome neighbor, and asked Massachusetts to protect them against him. Besides this, two Indians came to Boston and declared that the land which Miantonomo had sold was really theirs, and offered to submit themselves and their territory to Massachusetts. The Court of Massachusetts summoned Gorton and his companions to appear before them and answer these charges. Gorton, although he does not seem to have been altogether in the wrong, sent back, not a temperate answer, but a violent attack on the government and religion of Massachusetts. Thereupon the Court of Massachusetts, always severe in dealing with those who differed from it, seized Gorton and brought him to Boston in irons. There he took to preaching his religious doctrines, and got so many disciples that the Court was glad to hurry him out of the country, threatening him with death if he returned. He then lodged an appeal with the Commissioners for Foreign Plantations. They sent out orders that Gorton and his friends should be allowed to settle peaceably on the land which they had bought from the Indians. Massachusetts had already sent an agent, one Winslow, a leading man from the colony of Plymouth, to plead their cause against Gorton in England. When this order came out, they sent back an answer to be presented by Winslow. In this they boldly declared that the English government ought not to receive appeals against the Colonial governments, and that it was impossible for men in England to know what was good for a distant settlement. The Commissioners for Plantations wrote a very temperate answer, promising not to trespass on the lawful power of the Massachusetts government. At the same time they held out on the main point, and bade the General Court allow Gorton to live in peace. This was done, and the disturbance ended. Other inhabitants

of New England besides Gorton had grievances which they laid before the English government. Many of the inhabitants of Massachusetts, who stood high in position and character, had no share in the government, because their religious opinions would not allow them to join any of the New England churches. In 1646 a party, small in numbers, but including some of the best and ablest men in the colony, drew up a paper which set forth the above grievance, and laid it before the General Court. As soon as the Massachusetts settlers left the Church of England, they betook themselves to Independency, and Presbyterianism never found any favor with the generality of them. The conflict between the two sects was now raging in England, and the result seemed doubtful. The petitioners were for the most part Presbyterians, and the fears of the Independents were aroused. The petitioners were brought before the Court, accused of having made false and scandalous charges against the churches and government of Massachusetts, and fined. Afterwards a rumor got about that they meant to appeal to the English government. Their papers were seized, and found to contain treasonable matter, whereupon the writers were again heavily fined. At last they made their way to England; but by that time the Independents had the upper hand, and nothing came of the appeal.

In the great controversy in England between the Presbyterians and Independents many of the chief writers on the Independent side came from New England. At the same time, the New Englanders did not keep to the pure Independent system. They found that their churches were threatened by enemies both in America and England, and would be in danger unless there was some union between them. In 1648 a meeting of all the churches in Massachusetts was held. It sat for a fortnight, and drew up a system of Church Discipline. This provided that similar meetings should be held from time to time. These were to have the power of advising and reproving the different churches. Any offending church might be refused a place in these meetings, and if it should be obstinate, might be handed over for punishment to the General Court.

Till 1646 there was no open quarrel between the Confederation and its Dutch neighbors. In that year, Peter Stuyvesant, a man of high spirit and great courage, was appointed Governor of New Netherlands. One of his first acts was to seize a Dutch smuggling vessel in New Haven harbor. The men of New Haven resented this as an outrage, and Stuyvesant made matters worse by addressing a letter to "New Haven in New Netherlands," as if laying claim to the territory. He then proposed to refer the dispute to the Governors of Plymouth and Massachusetts. The Court of Massachusetts thought that the question would be better referred to the Federal Commissioners. Stuyvesant demurred to this, and for four years the question remained open. In 1650 Stuyvesant himself came to Hartford in Connecticut

to settle the matter in dispute. His chief complaint was that, by occupying Connecticut and New Haven, the English had encroached on Dutch territory. The grievances of the English were certain acts of dishonesty on the part of Dutch traders at Hartford. They also accused the Dutch of assisting criminals to escape from New England. After some discussion, arbitrators were appointed, who settled the question in dispute, and fixed a boundary line between the Dutch and English territories. Disputes soon broke out again. In the next year war was declared between England and Holland. Rumors began to run through the English settlements that the Dutch were conspiring with the Indians for a general attack on New England. Whether there was any good ground for this belief it is impossible now to say. But only twenty-four years earlier the Dutch had cruelly massacred a body of English traders at Amboyna, an island in the Moluccas. This had roused the English people to a great pitch of fury. With this fresh in their memory, the New Englanders could hardly be blamed for somewhat readily believing the charges against the Dutch. So strong was their feeling, that three of the four colonies wanted to declare war. Massachusetts alone resisted.



J. Winthrop

That colony was at once the most powerful and the least exposed to the Dutch, and therefore had least to fear. Accordingly, presuming on their greater strength, they declared through their commissioners that, in spite of the decision of the Federal Court, they would not take part in the war. When the other commissioners represented that this was a breach of their agreement, the Massachusetts commissioners declined to answer them, and asked them to proceed to other business. The commissioners refused to do this till the dispute was settled. Massachusetts still held out. In their distress, Connecticut and New Haven applied to England for help. Cromwell replied to the appeal by sending a fleet, with a land force on board. Connecticut and New

Haven at once raised forces to assist them. Massachusetts would take no part in the war, but allowed the English commander to raise five hundred

volunteers in their territory. Before operations could begin, news came of the utter defeat of the Dutch in the English Channel. This ended the war, and we hear no more of the disputes with the New Netherlands. The affair served to show the weakness of the Confederation, and how utterly its affairs were under the control of Massachusetts.

About the time when the Confederation was founded, a sort of civil war was going on in the French settlement of Acadia between two rival claimants for the governorship, La Tour and D'Aulney. In 1642 La Tour made overtures to Massachusetts, asking for help, and offering in return a free trade between the New England ports and those under his jurisdiction. He also appealed to the religious sympathies of the New Englanders, as he was a Protestant and D'Aulney a Roman Catholic. Massachusetts declined to make any alliance with La Tour, but allowed him to raise soldiers in her territory, and to charter vessels in her harbors. In return, he granted them free trade with his ports. In consequence of this proceeding, a law was made at the next meeting of the Federal Commissioners, forbidding any state to allow a levy in its territory without the leave of the whole Confederation. Soon after La Tour had been to Massachusetts, D'Aulney also tried to make an alliance with that colony. No assistance was given him, but a firm peace was made, and it was arranged that there should be free trade between their territories. Soon after, a ship which was sailing from Massachusetts with supplies for La Tour, was seized by D'Aulney, and the crew severely treated. This led to a quarrel, but the Federal Commissioners interfered, and friendship was restored. La Tour was then defeated and driven out. The men of Boston fitted him out with a ship, but he ungratefully set the English part of the crew on shore in the dead of winter, and sailed off on a voyage of piracy. The war ended with the accidental death of D'Aulney and the establishment of La Tour as Governor; but after his misconduct the New Englanders had nothing more to do with the quarrel. In 1650 the Governor of New France made proposals to New England for an offensive alliance against the Iroquois, or Five Nations, the most powerful and warlike of all the Indian races. Hitherto these Indians had not had much to do with the English, but they had never shown any hostile feeling towards them. They had recently made a fierce and successful onslaught on the Abenakis, a nation allied to the French, and including many Christian converts. The New Englanders refused to have anything to do with the quarrel, and at a later time the Iroquois proved valuable allies against the French.

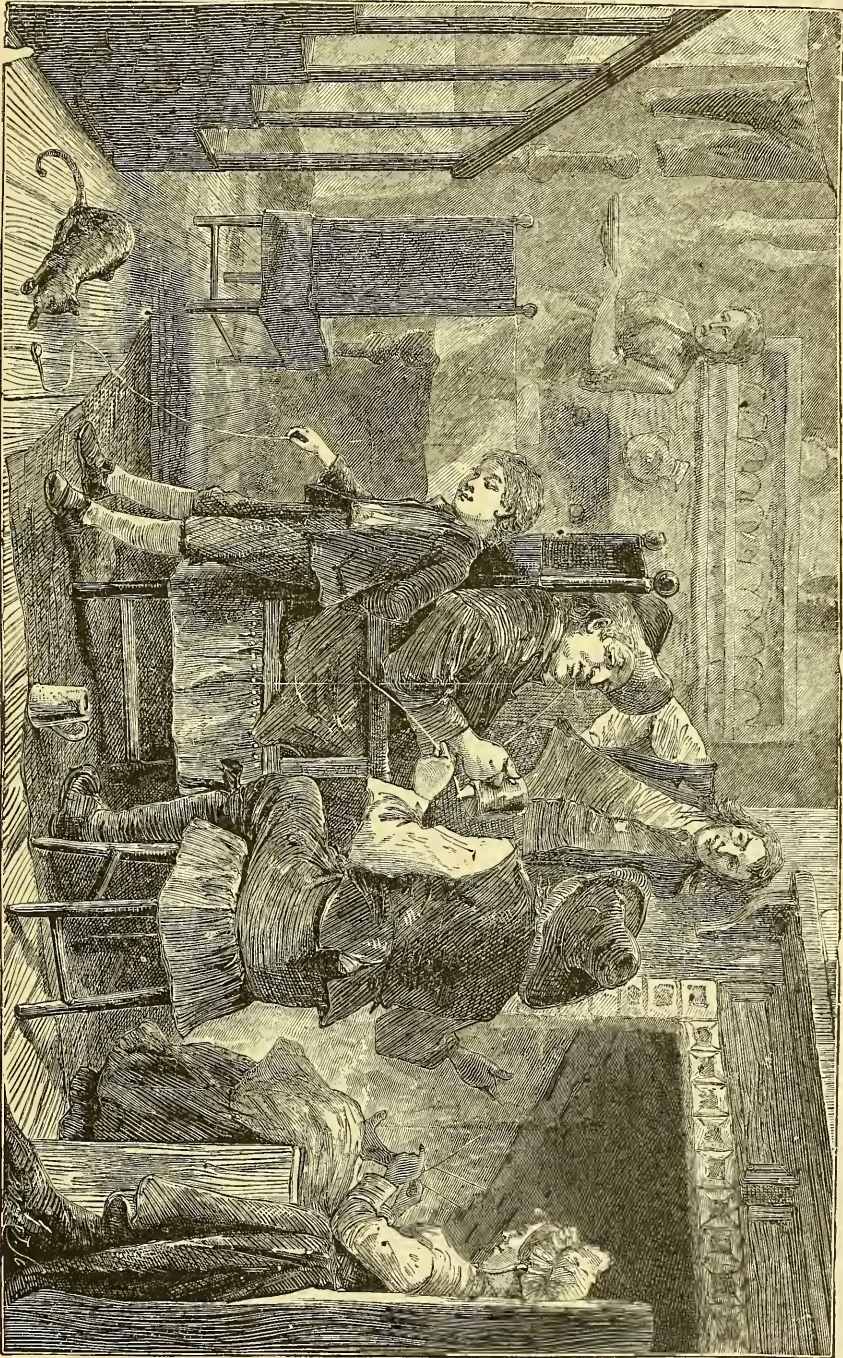
The dealings of the Confederation with the Indians, like those with the Dutch, showed the undue power of Massachusetts. Miantonomo, the Narragansett chief, was for some time suspected of designs against the New Englanders. This charge rested chiefly on the evidence of Uncas, the chief of

the Mohegans. He and his people had always been fast friends to the English, and were enemies to the Narragansetts. Miantonomo too was the friend and ally of Gorton, and this no doubt embittered many of the settlers against him. In 1642 the question of declaring war on him came before the Federal Commissioners. Massachusetts, in opposition to the other three States, was for peace, and prevailed. Soon after, war broke out between Miantonomo and Uncas. The former was defeated and taken prisoner. Uncas consulted the Federal Commissioners as to how he should deal with his captive. Their advice was that Miantonomo should be put to death, but without torture. Uncas followed this counsel. Next year the war between the Mohegans and the Narragansetts was renewed. The Confederacy at once prepared for war—this time without any dispute. The Narragansetts, overawed by this, came to terms, and a treaty was made. By this the Narragansetts bound themselves to pay a yearly tribute to the Confederacy. But the tribute was irregularly paid, and had to be extorted by force. It was even rumored that the Narragansetts were trying to bring down the Iroquois upon the English. At length, in 1650, the Confederacy sent a small force into the country of the Narragansetts and seized Pesacus, their chief. This struck such terror into them that for a while they left the English in security. Danger soon threatened the English from another tribe, the Nyantics, allies of the Narragansetts. They it was with whom the Dutch were thought to be plotting against New England. Moreover, they had molested some Indians who were friendly to the English. As Massachusetts refused to believe the charge against the Dutch, it was but reasonable that she should oppose the war against the Nyantics, and she did so. This time, however, she was overruled, and a force was sent out under the command of one Willard, a Massachusetts man. Owing to his slackness the Indians were allowed to retire into a strong position, and the troops went home without striking a blow. Thus it was again seen how useless it was for the Confederacy to attempt any measure which was disapproved of by Massachusetts.

Another dispute arose in which Massachusetts showed the same overbearing temper. As we have seen, the Government of Connecticut had bought and maintained a fort at Saybrook. To repay them for this, they charged toll on all goods carried up or down the river Connecticut on which the fort stood. The men of Springfield, a town on the river within the boundary of Massachusetts, refused to pay this toll, and the Government of Massachusetts backed them in their refusal. The dispute was referred to the Federal Commissioners, who decided in favor of Connecticut. The Court of Massachusetts then drew up an answer making proposals very dangerous to the Confederacy. They suggested that Massachusetts should, in consideration of her greater size and services, be allowed three Commissioners. They also proposed to lessen the power of the Federal Commissioners

by limiting their meetings to one in every three years, and by a law that, if any colony chose not to follow the advice of the Commissioners, this should

A DUTCH HOUSEHOLD IN NEW YORK.



be considered no breach of the agreement, and no power should be employed to enforce such advice. At the same time they protested against the judg-

ment of the Commissioners about the toll. The Commissioners refused to alter their decision. Thereupon the Court of Massachusetts, in retaliation, imposed a duty on all goods imported into their territory from any of the three other colonies. The Commissioners drew up a remonstrance, and appealed to Massachusetts whether such conduct "agreed with the law of love and the tenor and import of the Articles of Confederation." In the next year Massachusetts took off the duty, and the dispute ended.

About this time a religious sect made its first appearance in New England, which afterwards played an important part in American history. These were the Quakers, or, as they called and still call themselves, the Friends. Their founder was one George Fox, a cobbler. The very first members of the sect were for the most part wild and untaught fanatics. They went to every part of the world, to Germany, the East, and America, preaching their doctrines, and often annoying and insulting those who would not hear them. They even went to Italy and Turkey in the hope of converting the Pope and the Sultan. In 1654 their writings were forbidden by the Court of Massachusetts. Two years later some of them appeared there in person. They were at once brought before the Court and examined. They railed at the officials, and, for this and their opinions, were banished. In the same year a law was passed, that all Quakers coming into the colony should be flogged, and that any shipmaster bringing them in, or any person entertaining them or having their books, should be banished. In the following May, Quaker meetings were forbidden by law. Nevertheless Quakerism spread, and in October a law was passed, that if any Quakers should return after they had been once banished, they should be put to death. During the next two years this law was put in force five times. Winthrop, the Governor of Connecticut, son of the former Governor of Massachusetts, begged for the lives of the offenders; but the Deputies, encouraged by the Church elders, stood firm. At last public feeling showed itself so strongly that the Court gave way. They did not confess themselves in the wrong by formally repealing the former law, but they practically set it aside, by ordering that Quakers should be flogged in every town in the colony. From that time no more were put to death. In Plymouth and New Haven, Quakers were also flogged. In Connecticut, thanks to Winthrop, they were almost free from persecution. In Rhode Island alone they escaped it altogether, and found such a refuge as the early Puritans had found in Holland. The Federal Commissioners wrote to the Government of Rhode Island to remonstrate with them on their conduct. In their answer the Rhode Islanders defended themselves by saying that they had found that, where the Quakers are "suffered to declare themselves freely, there they least desire to come; and that they are likely to gain more followers by the conceit of their patient sufferings than by consent to their pernicious sayings."

CHAPTER VIII.

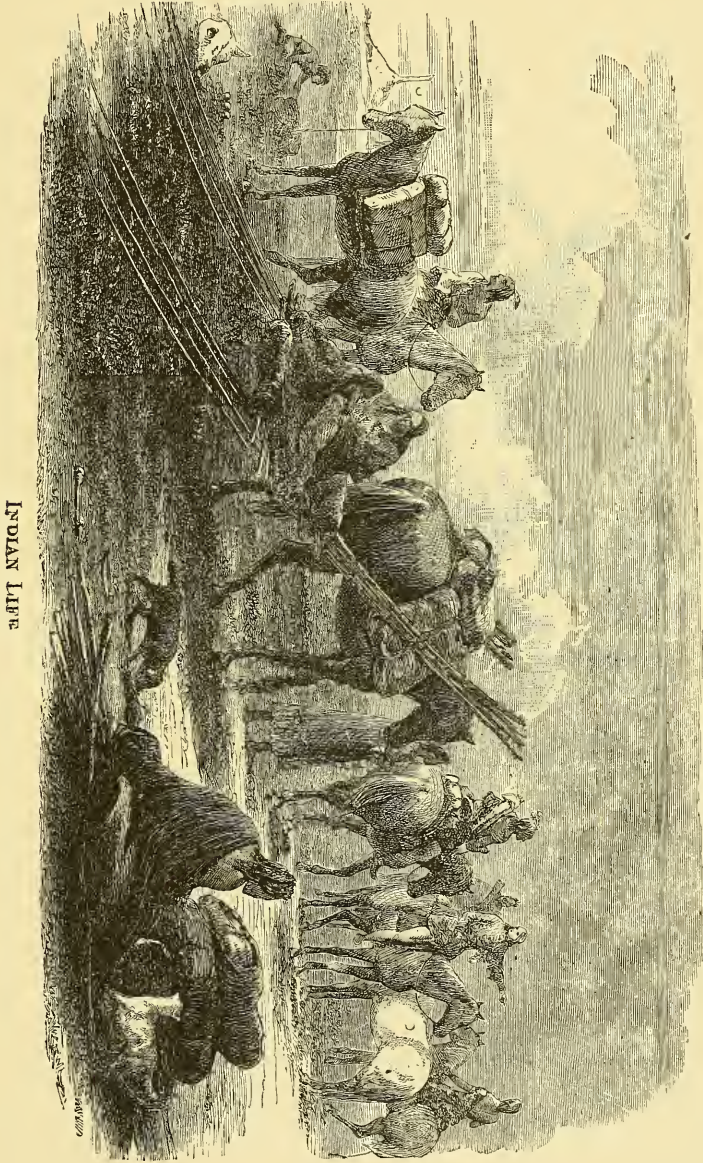
NEW ENGLAND FROM THE RESTORATION TO THE REVOLUTION
OF 1688.

THE Restoration the management of the colonies was given to a special Board called the Council for the Plantations. A few months later, twelve Privy Councillors were appointed as a Committee to settle the government of New England. No immediate change took place. But it was at once clear that the New Englanders feared danger from the restored monarchy. Rumors reached them from their friends in England that Virginia and the West India Islands were forbidden to trade with them, and that a Governor over all the New England colonies was about to be sent out from England. Moreover, the Quakers had been laying their grievances before the king. The Court of Massachusetts at once sent over addresses to the king and the parliament. In both they expressed a hope that they might keep that freedom in quest of which they had faced such toils and dangers. They also pointed out the extreme obstinacy and insolence of the Quakers, and declared that if they would but have promised to stay away from Massachusetts, they would have been pardoned. The address to the king was answered by a letter with general promises of friendship and good treatment. At the same time it forbade the colonists to inflict any bodily punishment on the Quakers, and ordered that they should be sent over to England for trial. This order was disregarded. By obeying it the colonists would have given up their right of trying all offences in the colony, a point on which they always stood firm. Two years later the law condemning Quakers to be flogged was re-enacted, though it was granted as a favor that it should only be inflicted in three towns. The position of the settlers now became a difficult one. They wished to stand well with the king, and at the same time to be on their guard against encroachment on their rights. In the following March (1661) the Court of Massachusetts compelled John Eliot, a leading minister, to apologize for a book he had written teaching doctrines hostile to monarchy. Soon after, they drew up a very important paper. It was a formal declaration, setting forth the rights of the settlers and the duties which they owed to the Crown. It declared that the whole body of freemen had power to add to their own number, to appoint officers, and to carry on government; and that there was no appeal from them, un-

less their laws were contrary to those of England. They claimed the right to make war in defence of their own country, and declared that any tax injurious to the colony and contrary to any of its laws was an infringement of their rights. In August the king was formally proclaimed in Massachusetts. The other New England colonies soon did likewise. New Haven, however, was so slow about it that the Court of Massachusetts at length warned the government of the danger of delay. During the same year an event happened which gave the New Englanders some cause for uneasiness. Just before the king was restored, two of the judges who had sentenced Charles I.—Goffe and Whalley—came to America. For some while they lived openly in the neighborhood of Boston, and were well received by many of the chief men. But in November, 1660, when they had been here about three months, tidings came from England that all the king's judges were to be pardoned except seven, of whom Goffe and Whalley were two. Thereupon they fled to New Haven. In March, orders came to seize them, but their friends hid them; no hard matter in a wild country. They escaped from their pursuers, lived in hiding, and died peaceably in New Haven. Though the authorities in Massachusetts do not seem to have furthered their escape, or to have failed in any way to obey the orders from England, yet the matter might easily have been turned against the colony by its enemies. With all these causes for alarm, the Court of Massachusetts resolved to send over two men to appear on behalf of the colony before the king. They chose Simon Bradstreet, one of the original settlers, and John Norton, a leading minister. They were graciously received by the king, and brought back a letter from him to the Court of Massachusetts. He promised to respect their patent and charter. At the same time he ordered that the right of voting should be given to all freeholders, whether they were Church-members or not, that the services of the Church of England should be allowed, that the colonists should take the oath of allegiance, and that for the future justice should be administered in the king's name. The colonists would not have been injured by granting any of these demands, but they would have been giving up that right of self-government which they had so often claimed. They gave way so far that all legal papers were drawn up in the king's name, but they referred the other matters to a committee, and nothing was done about them. So indignant were the people at the matter, that they vented their wrath in abuse of Bradstreet and Norton. The latter died in a few months, broken-hearted, as it was thought, at the ingratitude of his countrymen.

For two years after the king's letter came out, Massachusetts had no important dealings with the home government. But in 1664 four Commissioners were sent out by the king to set matters in order in New England. Their chief instructions were to settle the disputes about boundaries, to

remedy the grievances of those who were deprived of the rights of citizens, and to inquire into the truth of certain complaints brought by the Indians against the settlers. They had power to hear complaints and appeals, and



to “proceed in all things for the providing for and settling the peace and security” of New England. They were also to “dispose the people to an entire submission and obedience to the king’s government,” and, if possible, to persuade them to give the king the right of naming the governor of the colony and the commander of the militia. At the same time there is

nothing to show that this was to be carried out except by full consent of the colonists themselves. The only one of the Commissioners who had had any dealings with New England before was Samuel Maverick. He was one of the men who in the time of the Commonwealth had pleaded the cause of those who were not Church-members, and for this had been fined by the Court. His presence on the Commission may have served to alarm the colonists. In July, 1664, the Commissioners arrived at Boston. Their first request was for help against New Netherlands, as the Dutch were then at war with England. This was granted. In obedience to the Commissioners, the law was repealed which required that freemen should be church-members. The Court then drew up an address to the king. In this they set forth that their charter gave them the privilege of being governed by rulers of their own choosing, and that this was taken from them by the appointment of the Commissioners. They also declared that to set up a government directly appointed by the king in the colony would increase taxation, impoverish the inhabitants, and thus destroy their trade and hurt England. During the whole stay of the Commissioners in Massachusetts they were engaged in petty quarrels and bickerings with the colonists. The Court showed a fixed determination not to comply with the demands of the king, while the Commissioners took no pains to make their requirements less unpleasant by a courteous and conciliatory manner. On the main point, whether the colony had complied with the king's instructions of 1662, the Commissioners could get no definite answer from the Court. In all the other New England colonies the Commissioners met with a friendly reception, and on their return the king wrote letters to Connecticut and Plymouth, praising them for their obedience, and contrasting it with the stubborn conduct of Massachusetts.

If Massachusetts seemed likely to lose by the Restoration, Rhode Island and Connecticut were gainers by it. Rhode Island had proclaimed the king before any other of the New England colonies. At the same time they sent over an agent to England to ask for a charter. Their exclusion from the New England confederation possibly told in their favor at the English Court. In July 1663, they received a charter constituting them a separate colony. The election of the governor was left to the freemen of the colony, and the existing system of government was in no way changed. The charter also gave full religious liberty to all sects. Connecticut met with like favor. This was probably due to the influence of its governor, Winthrop, who himself went over to plead their cause. He was a man of good breeding and education, and seems to have ingratiated himself with the king and his Lord Treasurer, Clarendon. At the same time that the charter was granted to Rhode Island, Connecticut also received one confirming the existing constitution. These two charters were so carelessly drawn up that the lands

assigned to each colony overlapped. Thus a dispute arose, which, however, was fortunately settled before either of the charters were sent out.

The Connecticut charter gave rise to more serious trouble. It included the whole territory of New Haven, and thus empowered Connecticut to annex that colony. The people of New Haven had incurred the displeasure of the king in the matter of Goffe and Whalley, and it is not impossible that this charter was in part designed to punish them. When the people of New Haven learned what had been done, they petitioned the king not to unite them to Connecticut. Winthrop, who was still in England, hearing of this petition, promised that no union should be made except by the free consent of New Haven. But the government of Connecticut did not consider that Winthrop had any power to bind them by such a promise, and, when the charter arrived, they required the people of New Haven to submit. New Haven for a while held out, and was supported by the Federal Commissioners from Plymouth and Massachusetts. The union was at length brought about by the news that Commissioners were coming out from England. It was clearly better for New Haven to form part of a colony which had just got a liberal charter, than to face the Commissioners without any charter, and with the king's displeasure hanging over it. The Federal Commissioners represented this to the government of New Haven, and in 1664 the two colonies were united. This practically put an end to the New England confederation. For the future the Commissioners only met once in three years, and we hear but little of their action in important matters.

After the departure of the Commissioners, New England enjoyed a period of security and great prosperity. Under the Commonwealth, Puritans had been too well off in England to care to emigrate, and New England had not received many fresh settlers. But now, the Act of Uniformity deprived some two thousand non-conforming ministers of the livings of which they had possessed themselves under the Commonwealth, and by leading many to seek refuge in New England, furnished the colonies with some of their ablest clergy. Trade also thrived. In spite of the Navigation Act, no custom-house was built; and as all the officers of the colony, from the governor downwards, were independent of the home government, there was little chance of an unpopular law being strictly put in force. Moreover, the fire of London and the Dutch war so fully occupied the English government that for a while it neglected colonial affairs. Yet the inhabitants of Massachusetts had much cause for uneasiness. From the outset their State had only existed by the sufferance of the English government. Its charter was merely the charter of a trading company. It gave no power to enact laws, to inflict punishment, to form alliances, or to make war. Massachusetts had indeed been allowed to grow under this charter into a free and prosperous community, and it is no wonder that she should have been prepared to hold

fast by privileges which she had so long enjoyed. Yet it was certain that in all that she had done she had exceeded and misused the powers granted her; and no tribunal, however friendly, could help ruling that her charter was forfeited. Other things might, and for a while did, occupy the home government; but the blow was sure to come at last. Besides there was danger within the colony. Riches had increased, and the old Puritan severity of temper and principle had become weaker. A race of men had grown up, less attached to the ideas and habits of their fathers, easily dazzled by the greater splendor and grace of English life, and therefore inclined to look favorably on anything which drew the colony closer to the mother country. Even among those who were for holding fast to their independence, there were two parties. One was for a moderate and conciliatory policy; the other opposed all concessions, and objected to sending over agents to England, or acknowledging the acts of trade as binding on the colonists.

New England was soon threatened from another quarter. For the last thirty years the settlers had been at peace with the Indians. Something



KING PHILIP.

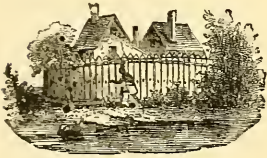
had been done towards converting and civilizing them. In 1643 Thomas Mayhew, a Massachusetts Puritan, obtained a grant of certain small islands off the coast of Plymouth, but forming no part of its territory. Here his son, a minister, established a small settlement of Christian Indians. John Eliot followed his example, and villages were formed in Massachusetts, inhabited by converts, living by husbandry and handicrafts. Thus by 1674 there were in New England more than two thousand Christian converts. Yet little had been done to bring the whole race of Indians into friendly rela-

tions with the settlers. The missionaries had done their work by drawing out small bodies of Indians and separating them from the great mass, not by attempting to carry Christianity and civilization into the heart of the Indian country. Such an attempt would perhaps have been idle. The villages of praying Indians, as they were called, probably did something to make the rest of the natives keep aloof from the English. They saw that, in order to become Christians and friends of the white men, they must give up their free life of hunting, and take to ways that they looked on as disgraceful. They saw too that, even so, they could not really win the friendship or the respect of the English. The converted Indians too often lost the happiness of the savage, without gaining that which belongs to civilized life. The friendship between the Plymouth settlers and Massasoit lasted during his life. His two sons, as a token of respect for the English, took the names of Alexander and Philip. Yet, after their father's death, they were suspected of treacherous designs. During Alexander's reign no open war broke

out, but the settlers, thinking that he was plotting against them, seized him and carried him by force to Boston. Soon after, he died, and was succeeded by Philip, a man of great ability and courage.

The Plymouth settlers had for some years been trying to weaken the Indians, by buying up their lands and leaving them only some necks of land running out into the sea, where, being surrounded by water on three sides, they could be more easily kept in check. In 1670 Philip was suspected of intrigues with the Narragansetts against the English, and the Court of Plymouth demanded that he should give up his arms. He sent in seventy guns, and promised the rest, but kept them. Soon after, however, he came himself to Plymouth, and made a treaty, by which he owned himself subject to the king of England and the Government of Plymouth, and promised not to make any war without the consent of the English. It may be doubted whether the Indians, in this and like treaties, understood clearly the nature of their own promises. In 1674 Sausamon, a Christian Indian, warned the English that Philip was plotting against them. Soon after Sausamon was killed by three Indians, employed, as was believed, by Philip. For this crime they were tried and executed at Plymouth. Philip and his subjects were not ready for an outbreak, but they saw that they were detected, and must strike at once or never. Accordingly, in the spring of 1675 they invaded the English territory. They did not march in a body, but, following their own mode of warfare, fell upon the settlers in small parties wherever a chance offered. In spite of the long peace with the Indians, the settlers had not neglected the means of defence. All the male inhabitants were bound to be provided with arms and ammunition, and they often met for military exercise. Again, traditions of warfare with the Pequods did much to prepare the younger generation of New Englanders for contests with the Indians. But no drill can supply the want of actual practice in war, especially for irregular fighting in the forest, and for a while it seemed as if the settlers would be worsted. If the Indians had only been united, it is not unlikely that the settlers would have been exterminated. But Philip had been hurried into war before his plots were ripe, and many of the Indians were taken by surprise, and were not ready for action. In July the settlers marched into the Narragansetts' country and compelled that tribe to make a treaty, whereby they promised to give no help to Philip or his people, but to kill or deliver up to the English any who might enter their territory. In the next winter the English seemed to have the enemy at their mercy. They hemmed in Philip on a narrow neck of land running out into the sea, where there seemed to be no escape. But Philip and his bravest warriors made their way to the mainland, either swimming or on rafts. Many who had hitherto stood aloof now took up arms, and ravaged the English country. In the words of a

New England writer, "there was no safety to man, woman, nor child; to him who went out or to him who came in. Whether they were asleep or awake, whether they journeyed, labored, or worshiped, they were in continual jeopardy." The settlers in their rage forgot all the restraints of justice and humanity. Some wished to massacre all the Christian Indians, lest they should turn traitors. In one town the magistrates refused to put to death two captive Indians on mere suspicion of their guilt. On Sunday, as the women of the place were coming away from their meeting-house, they fell on the two Indian prisoners in a body, and killed them. As winter came on the hopes of the Indians declined. They had been unable to sow their corn during summer, and the war left them no leisure for hunting. They were driven to live on roots and every kind of garbage. Many fell sick and died. In November the English heard that the Narragansetts had



FALISADED BUILDING.

received some of Philip's men as friends. They at once determined to prevent the union of the two tribes, and marched into the Narragansett country with a thousand men. They reached the chief village unchecked, and attacked it. The Indians opened so fierce a fire, that for a while the assailants were kept at bay. At last they stormed the fort, and the In-

dians fled, leaving their stores, their women and children, and many old, sick, and wounded. The English then set fire to the village, and of those who had been left behind some three hundred perished in the flames. The settlers lost about one hundred and seventy men, many of whom died from their wounds and the severity of the weather. Of the Indians more than a thousand fell, of whom seven hundred were fighting men. During the next summer Philip and his men again attacked the English settlements; but, though they did much damage, they were too much weakened to have any chance of lasting success. Philip's forces were destroyed; he was driven from place to place, and at last, in August, he was shot by a deserter from his own side. Before the winter the whole of his tribe, save a few who escaped to the west, were either slain or captured. Among the prisoners was Philip's son, a child of three years old. Some of the settlers wished to put him to death, but the more humane party prevailed, and he was sent, with many of his fellow-prisoners, as a slave to the Bermudas. The settlers had lost six hundred men; whole towns were destroyed, and about six hundred houses burnt to the ground.

In 1676 another Indian war broke out on the Piscataqua. The chief tribe in that quarter were the Tarrateens. Among their chiefs was one Squanto, who, by claiming magical powers, had gained great influence over his countrymen. One day, as his wife was traveling down the river with her infant child, she met some English sailors, who wantonly upset her

canoe. The woman and child escaped, but the child soon afterwards died from the mishap. The savages, urged on by Squanto, and encouraged by the example of Philip, fell upon the settlers. For three years the war raged, and many lives were lost on both sides. In 1676 a large number of the Indians made peace with the settlers, but this was soon broken through the treachery of one of the English, Major Waldron. He suspected that the Indians were plotting to break the peace, and he resolved to be beforehand with them. With this aim he invited four hundred of them to a sham fight. The Indians, by agreement, fired off their guns first. Before they could reload, the English surrounded them, and took them prisoners. Two hundred were sent to Boston; some of those who had slain Englishmen were put to death, and the rest sold as slaves. The Indians never forgot this treachery, and some thirteen years later, during another war, Waldron was captured by the treachery of an Indian who pretended to be his friend, and cruelly tortured to death. The capture of these Indians probably did the English more harm than good, since it taught their enemies that there was no safety in submission, and that their only chance was to fight it out. So hard pressed were the English that in 1678 they were glad to make peace. They agreed to pay the Indians a bushel of corn for every English household, on condition that they might inhabit their former settlements in peace. This was the first treaty ever made with the Indians on terms disadvantageous to the English. One important event occurred during this war. I have already spoken of the confederacy of the Five Nations, called by the English the Mohawks, and by the French the Iroquois. They numbered some three thousand warriors, and their lands reached from the frontier of New Netherlands to the Canadian lakes. But, beyond those bounds, they exercised a supremacy over many tribes who did not belong to the confederacy, but who paid them tribute and obeyed their commands. Happily for the English, the Mohawks were unfriendly to the New England Indians. They were also hostile to the French, and they may have known something of the enmity between the French and the English, and so have been inclined to favor the latter. In 1677 two ambassadors were sent from the settlers on the Piscataqua to the Mohawks. They were well received, and the Mohawks promised to attack the Tarrateens. No great result seems to have come of this at the time, but it was the beginning of a long and useful alliance. The conduct of the settlers during these wars increased the displeasure of the home government. It was thought that they might have made shorter work of their enemies if they had been willing to ask help from England, but that their pride and independence had withheld them.

In 1676 Massachusetts became engaged in a dispute about boundaries. In 1629 John Mason had obtained from the Plymouth Company a grant of

all the land between the rivers Merrimac and Piscataqua. But the grant made two years before to the Massachusetts Company had for its northern boundary a line three miles north of the Merrimac. The Massachusetts government had always contended that this boundary was a straight line drawn from three miles beyond the northernmost part of the Merrimac to the sea. This would have given them all the settlements on the Piscataqua. Mason's heirs, on the other hand, contended that the boundary was to be a line three miles north of the Merrimac all along its course. For some years, Mason, the grandson of the first proprietor, had been endeavoring to revive this claim. At the same time the heirs of Gorges were attempting to recover Maine. As neither of those claimants seemed likely to succeed, they proposed to sell their rights to the Crown. The king at first entertained this proposal, intending to make a province for his natural son, the Duke of Monmouth. Monmouth, however, found that no great profit was likely to accrue from this, and the scheme was abandoned. In 1675 Mason again revived his claim. One Randolph was sent out by the Council for Plantations to inquire into the matter. He was a kinsman of Mason, a man of great ability, and a bitter enemy to New England. From the time that he went out, he devoted his whole energy to raking up every charge that he could find against the settlers, and putting all their conduct in the worst light possible, so as to egg on the English government against them. He sent back a report that there were many settlers in the disputed territory who wished to separate from Massachusetts. The case was brought before the English Chief Justice, who ruled that the land was not included in the Massachusetts grant. Accordingly, the king placed the four towns on the Piscataqua under a separate government, and called the districts so formed New Hampshire. It was to be governed by a President and Council nominated by the king, and a House of Deputies, from the different towns. The first governor appointed under the new system was John Cutts, a leading man in the colony, and esteemed by the inhabitants. After a year he was superseded by Edward Cranfield, who had bought Mason's right to the land. He soon embroiled himself with the inhabitants by various misdeeds. Amongst other things, he was accused of levying taxes without the consent of the Assembly, of having suits in which he was interested tried by courts that he had himself appointed, of raising the fees in the law courts so as to prevent poor men from suing, and of committing men to prison without trial. The people complained of these wrongs to the English government, and Cranfield saved himself from being turned out of his government by resigning it. The claims of Gorges' heirs were more easily settled. Massachusetts bought their rights in the land for one thousand two hundred pounds, and stepped into the place of the proprietor. Accordingly the government of Massachusetts also governed Maine, but as a separate state, not forming



View of the Town of New Hampton

any part of Massachusetts, and governed according to the charter originally granted to Gorges.

In 1679 the English government at last found leisure to turn its attention to Massachusetts. In July the king sent out a letter, repeating some of the demands made by him before, and in addition desiring that the colonists should surrender the province of Maine on repayment of the one thousand two hundred pounds, on the ground that they had dealt harshly with some of the settlers there. The Court of Massachusetts took no notice of this demand. To all the others they replied that they either had been, or should be, fulfilled. In 1681 the long expected blow came. A general attack was made by the king and his advisers on the charters of corporations throughout England. In some cases the privileges granted to city corporations had been used by the members as a means for setting at naught the laws. Such charters might with justice have been forfeited. But this was made a pretext for extending the attack to others, against which no such charges could be brought. The Judges of that day were so subservient to the Crown that it was useless for the corporations to resist. A charter which had been so wrested from its original purpose as that of Massachusetts, was not likely to be overlooked. The king demanded that agents should be sent from Massachusetts to explain the charges brought against the colony of neglecting to enforce the Navigation Act, and of coining money by their own authority. At the same time the settlers were privately informed that their charter would be attacked. They sent over two agents, who wrote back word that the charter was sure to be taken from them, and asked whether they should surrender it of their own accord. The Court decided to let matters take their course. About this time Cranfield maliciously persuaded the Court of Massachusetts to instruct their agents to present two thousand pounds to the king as the price of keeping the charter. This proposal gained them nothing but mockery, as Cranfield wished. In October, 1683, the agents came back, and soon after, the charter was declared null and void. The constitution under which Massachusetts had existed from its foundation was at an end.

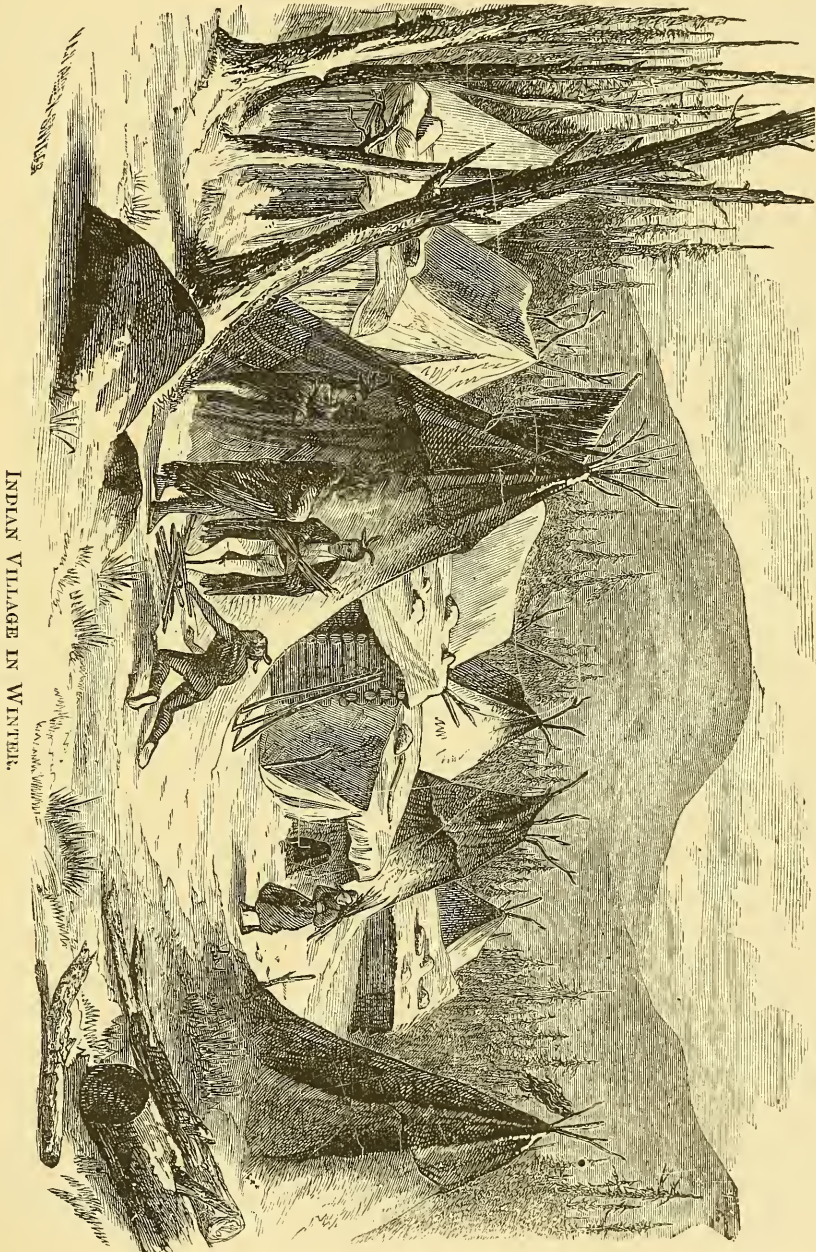
Before the new government could be settled, Charles II. died. During the first year of James's reign no material change was made. In 1686 the king appointed a Council, with Joseph Dudley as its president, to govern Massachusetts, Maine, and New Hampshire. Dudley was the son of one of the sternest of the old Massachusetts Puritans. But he had utterly forsaken his father's ways, and cared more for the favor of the English Court than for the rights of his fellow-citizens. In 1686 the charter of Connecticut was also annulled. Rhode Island yielded up hers in 1687. The policy of James was to unite all the northern colonies under one government. Accordingly, in 1686 Sir Edmund Andros was sent out with a commission as

Governor of Massachusetts, Plymouth, New Hampshire, and Maine. At the same time he had instructions from the king to join Connecticut to Massachusetts. The commission empowered Andros and his Council to levy taxes, to make laws, and to administer justice in civil and criminal cases. These laws were to be approved of by the king, and the legal proceedings were to follow the English forms. Not a word was said of representatives, or of any political rights to be granted to the people. Eleven years before, Andros had had unfriendly dealings with New England. Being then Governor of New York, he had, by orders of the Duke of York, the proprietor of that colony, marched with a force to Saybrook, to demand that Connecticut should give up to him several strong places, as being in his dominions. The settlers prepared to resist by force, if needful, and after a fruitless interview with them Andros departed. The dispute was referred to commissioners appointed by the king, and was decided in favor of Connecticut.

In October, 1687, Andros marched into Connecticut, and demanded the charter. One of the leading settlers, Captain Wadsworth, it is said, hid it away; at all events, the Court did not give up the actual document. But this, of course, availed them nothing, and Andros declared the colony joined to Massachusetts. In 1688, to complete the king's scheme of making one state of all the northern colonies, Andros was made Governor of New York. Thus he was ruler of all the English settlements north of Delaware Bay, and was responsible to none but the king. During his governorship he was accused of many arbitrary proceedings. It was said that he would not allow persons to marry until they had given surety to him, to be forfeited if there should prove to be any impediment, and that he threatened not to suffer the people to worship in their own fashion. Even private property was not safe. Grants of land made by the former government were declared invalid. When the people complained, Andros and his followers mockingly told them that "the calf had died in the cow's belly," meaning that the destruction of the charter had overthrown all lesser rights that were connected with it. In this winter a campaign was made against the Indians, but nothing was done, owing either to the incapacity of Andros or to the slackness of men serving under a commander whom they disliked.

Whether the New England colonists would have long endured the misgovernment of Andros may be doubted. At all events, when the news of the Revolution of 1688 reached them, they were quite ready for an outbreak. Seldom has a revolution been so easy and so bloodless. The people rose with one accord, seized Andros, and turned out his officials. The other New England colonies did likewise. All the old colonial governments were restored, but only to hold their power till the English government made some definite arrangement. This was not done for four years, and during that time the old constitutions were in force. In 1691 the case of Massa-

chusetts came before the English government. The agents for the colony soon saw that it was hopeless to think of recovering their old charter, and



INDIAN VILLAGE IN WINTER.

only applied themselves to getting as favorable a one as they could in its place. The English government proposed to unite Plymouth to Massachusetts. The Plymouth agent at first resisted this, but he soon found that there was no chance of Plymouth being allowed to remain under a separate

government, and that, if not joined to Massachusetts, it would be to New York. As his countrymen would have liked this still less, he yielded. In 1692 the new charter was sent out. The one great change which it made was, that the Crown appointed the Governor, while before the people had elected him. The General Court was to consist of twenty-eight councillors and an Assembly of representatives. The councillors were to be elected every year by the General Court; the representatives by the inhabitants of the various towns. No religious qualification was required from electors as formerly, but all who had freeholds worth forty shillings a year, or other estate of forty pounds value, were admitted to vote. All laws made by the Court were to be sent home to England for approval. This, and the change in the manner of appointing the Governor, quite deprived Massachusetts of that independence which she had always hitherto claimed. In his appointment of a Governor the king showed his wish to conciliate the people. He sent out Sir William Phipps, a native of Massachusetts, of low birth, who when a lad fed sheep, and afterwards became a ship's carpenter. In that trade he heard of a Spanish ship which had sunk with treasure on board. Having raised the vessel, he brought a great sum of money to England, and was knighted by the king. James II. made him sheriff of New England, but, unlike most of James's officers there, he did his best to serve his country, and won the esteem of the New Englanders. He was a man of no great ability, but honest, benevolent, and popular. The inhabitants of Massachusetts and New Hampshire would have gladly seen the two states again joined. But though the king had joined Plymouth against its wish to Massachusetts, he chose to keep Massachusetts and New Hampshire separate. This was ascribed to the influence of one Allen, who had bought the proprietorship of the soil in New Hampshire, and now obtained the governorship. New Hampshire had never had a charter, and none was granted to it now; but the government went on as before. The New England colonies which fared best at the Revolution were Connecticut and Rhode Island. Their charters were restored, so that they retained their old constitutions, and alone of all the colonies chose their own Governors. In 1690 and the two following years New England was engaged in a war with the French settlers in Canada and their Indian allies. But this was only part of a struggle between the French and English settlers which lasted, with one break, for more than twenty years, and it will therefore be better to tell of it in another chapter.

